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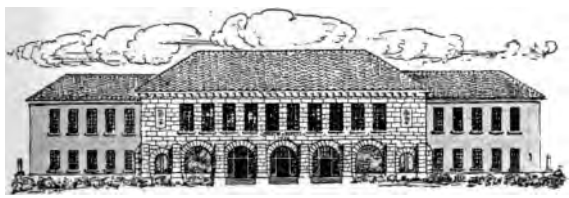

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NATIONAL EDUCATION.

VOL. I.

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NATIONAL EDUCATION;

ITS PRESENT STATE AND PROSPECTS.

BY

FREDERIC HILL.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

LONDON:
CHARLES KNIGHT, 22, LUDGATE-STREET.

1836.

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In sending forth this work to the public, it is necessary to give some explanation respecting the incompleteness which will be found in one or two portions.

Nearly the whole of what now appears was already written when the Author received his present appointment, that of Inspector of Prisons for Scotland. The duties which thus devolved upon him have so completely engrossed his attention as to put it out of his power at present to complete the work according to the original plan; and under these circumstances he thinks it better to publish the book in its present state than to delay it any longer with a view to greater completeness.

It was intended that one part of the work should give a general view of the existing provisions for education in England; and in this portion the Author is not aware of any important deficiency, except on the

subject of Mechanics' Institutions. A chapter on this interesting subject had been promised to the Author by his revered friend, the founder of these institutions; but the constant demands on the attention of that benevolent individual have delayed for a time the performance of his promise. The Author trusts, however, that if his work should reach a second edition, it will be enriched by the chapter in question; and in the mean time he has put into the Appendix much valuable matter relating to Mechanics' Institutions received in reply to queries which he had distributed.

Tottenham, March 1836.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE enlightened friends of humanity may at length congratulate themselves on the arrival of the time when the subject of education has acquired that strong interest in the public mind which will ensure a full inquiry into its merits, and consequently a speedy adoption of measures for bringing into full operation its mighty powers for good. The sneers of the ignorant, the supercilious, and the time-serving, and the fierce opposition of the interested, are now alike unavailing to prevent a rapid onward course in the path of improvement: nor will our progress be henceforth much deterred by the nervous fears of the timid and feeble-minded, who are at length finding out that, like other cowards, they have mistaken the object of their alarm; and that the imagined monster, on which they had not dared steadily to fix their eyes, is in fact a most friendly and benign power;—in a word, that popular knowledge, instead of being really a source of danger and insecurity, is the best guarantee for public tranquillity and the rights of property.

General attention having been thus strongly drawn to education, it is important that the public should at once be put in possession of such facts relating thereto as can be readily collected and arranged, in order that it may arrive at a just estimate of the

nature, tenor, and extent of the efforts made in behalf of education in this country and elsewhere, and of the effects actually produced.

Such a statement will assist, it may be hoped, in extending and strengthening the interest already so widely spread; and it will also be highly useful in directing public inquiry into the right channels, and in furnishing materials for estimating the benefits to be anticipated from a more extended education,—extended not only in the number of recipients, but also in the instruction afforded, and in the moral and physical training by which habits are created, and the constitution both of the mind and body in a great measure determined.

Such is the object of the present work, imperfectly as that object is attained. The great difficulty of obtaining trustworthy information on the state either of education or of public morals and happiness, in the absence of any organized system of collecting and registering facts, can be appreciated only by those who have earnestly set to work in the attempt. Writers, indeed, are to be found, who, to judge by the comprehensiveness and precision of their statements, must have succeeded in obtaining information at once vast in extent and astonishing in accuracy. We doubt not our readers, in common with ourselves, have often been amused to see tables laid down the utmost gravity, and without the slightest hint of a doubt as to their correctness, showing to a fraction the exact ratio of educated to uneducated persons in a dozen different countries; while all the time one knows full well how impossible it is to obtain even a moderately correct idea of the state of education in one's

own parish. In fact, by what means short of personal inquiry can one learn how many of one's neighbours have, even in their own apprehension, mastered the very elements of ordinary school instruction, and who account themselves able to read and write? Fielding talks of a "book which certain droll authors are facetiously pleased to call the *History of England*;" and the same love of the humorous has, we suppose, induced writers of the present day to present us with *Statistical Tables of Education and Crime.*

We divide our work into two parts, of which the first only now makes its appearance. In the present part, we begin by describing the *means* now existing for supplying school education to the poorer and most numerous classes of the English people; showing, at the same time, in what that education chiefly consists. Here we are led, of course, to remark on the schools conducted according to the plans of Bell and Lancaster, as also on Sunday schools: we likewise give such information as we have had opportunities of collecting (principally by personal examination) regarding manual-labour schools, or schools of industry. We give some account also of factory schools, which are of peculiar value in estimating the results of education, inasmuch as the continuance of the pupil's connexion with the place of his early training gives his instructors opportunity, rarely found elsewhere, for watching the course of his conduct, and observing how far the discipline of the boy modifies the character of the man. We give a short section, also, to schools for pauper children, another to infant schools, and a third to adult schools.

The next portion of our volume consists of a brief notice of the education of the middle and of the wealthy classes; and we conclude the division of our work, of which the foregoing forms part, with a general view of the present state of education in the country at large,—dividing the country, as well as we can, according to an educational standard.

Having thus examined at some length the means for affording education to the working and poorer classes of England and Wales, and of the extent to which education has in fact been carried among them, and having also taken a cursory view of the state of education among the middle and wealthy classes, we subjoin a brief notice of the state of education in Scotland and in Ireland. We then proceed to give some account of what has been effected in two countries in which education has, in a peculiar degree, been made a subject of national provision,—America and Prussia; and, as a contrast, we notice the state of ignorance and the amount of crime in Spain, — a country in which education has been almost totally neglected. The volume closes with a short chapter pointing out some of the conclusions which appear to follow from the facts brought forward, and into the consideration of which we propose to enter more fully in the second part of our work. This we propose to commence with a sketch of the history of education and the progress of knowledge in this country, to be followed by an examination of some of the results of the increase of knowledge, and some of the consequences of the ignorance which still continues. This examination will be founded principally on matter incidentally introduced in the preceding portions of

our work, but which in its new place will be classed under different heads,—such as crime, pauperism, drunkenness, superstition, industry, duration of life, &c. In conclusion, we shall submit, for the consideration of our readers, a sketch of a plan of national education, with an estimate of the cost of carrying it into operation.

NATIONAL EDUCATION.

PRESENT STATE OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

In no department have English statistics been neglected more than in that of education. The consequence is, that the most vague and contradictory ideas are abroad respecting its actual condition. By some it is maintained that the means of education are now within every one's reach, and that, in point of fact, very few are growing up without acquiring at least the rudiments of knowledge; while others declare that the existing provision for education is wretchedly insufficient, and that thousands and tens of thousands are advancing to the age of manhood in hopeless and unavoidable ignorance.

After a laborious search through the unarranged and unconnected materials at present existing, and after drawing from many private sources of information, we are still unable to come to any general conclusion on the accuracy of which we can rely. On two points, however, we entertain no doubt: firstly, that very much has been done for popular education; and, secondly, that a great deal remains to be effected, both as regards the diffusion of education and the nature of the education given. The principal sources of information respecting the present state of education in this country are,—

1. The Reports of the British and Foreign School

Society, of the National Society, and of the Sunday School Union;

2. The Reports of the Commissioners for Inquiring into the Application of Money left for Charitable Purposes;

3. The Reports of the Poor Law and Factory Commissioners; and,

4. The Evidence already received by the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into the Present State of the Education of the People in England and Wales.

The matter contained in the reports of the societies enumerated, when of a general kind, is necessarily drawn up from data on which but little dependance can be placed. Most of their schools are under the management of local committees, which are in no way responsible to the London committees, with which, indeed, their connexion is often of the slenderest kind. It is therefore impossible for the latter either to obtain returns from all these schools, or to test the accuracy of such returns if they be sent. Hence we need not be surprised that Mr. Dunn, the very intelligent Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, should declare, as he does in his evidence before the Committee of the House of Commons, that he has no means of knowing how many schools there are in England and Wales which adopt the British system. Upon being asked whether he could point out any way in which the Committee could acquire a definite conception of the extent of education in England and Wales at present, Mr. Dunn gave the following answer:—

"I should distrust almost any method short of

a personal investigation of the schools. I think there is no subject on which there has been more mystification, and respecting which the country has been so completely kept in ignorance, as on the extent of education. All the returns that I have yet seen appear in some instances to have confounded Sunday schools with day schools, and infant schools with schools for children of a higher class. The number of children on the books has also been confounded with the number in actual attendance; and in some instances schools have been returned as places of instruction where the children are only taught plaiting or lace-work, or some other work of industry."

Agreeing with Mr. Dunn in the incorrectness of the conclusions at present formed, and on the inadequacy of all means short of a personal examination for securing a trustworthy report on the state of education, we cannot but look with great scepticism on the announcement in the last Report of the National Society, that there are half a million of children in the society's schools; and again, that there are another half million in course of education under clergymen not in immediate connexion with their society. We fear the committee are imposing a heavy task on their friends, when they "earnestly entreat the clergy and other managers of schools to furnish them with such particulars as may serve to verify the conclusions now made from their former reports."

In like manner, we place but little reliance on the calculations of the Committee of the Sunday School Union; who, according to their own estimate, have nearly a million of children in their schools in England and Wales. It is natural for all parties to wish to see a good array of figures in the statement of the num-

ber of children in their schools; and this desire would be quite sufficient greatly to modify the returns, without any one entertaining the slightest intention of making a false report; so much are we all influenced in our interpretation of facts by our wish to arrive at certain conclusions.

We make these remarks with anything but a wish to detract from the merits of those who exert themselves in behalf of schools for the poor. Their merit is of a high order; especially is it so with those who, week after week, and year after year, give up to the laborious work of instructing others part of the only day in which they can hope for relaxation. Most richly do these truly benevolent men deserve honour of their country, as well for the purity of their intentions, as for the great benefits they have conferred on society at large. It is, we say, with no unfriendly design that we question the accuracy of the published reports issued as to the numbers of children educated; we merely wish to show, that if upon reports like these have been founded high opinions of the spread of education in this country, such opinions, even as regards the mere number educated, without reference to the instruction given, are probably incorrect, and certainly unauthorised, seeing that they depend on statements which are not, and (from the mode in which they are made) *cannot* be trustworthy.

We will examine these reports a little in detail; and in order to do so, let us first estimate as nearly as we can the total number of children in this country who are receiving education of any kind, and from whatever source. The average time during which a boy remains at school is (so far as we can learn from the very insufficient evidence which exists on the subject)

in a Sunday school between three and four years, and in a day school about a year and a half. Mr. Althans, the Secretary of the East London Auxiliary Sunday School Union, gives it as his opinion before the present Education Committee of the House of Commons, that two years is about the average time a child remains in any one Sunday school: but, as he remarks, a child will, owing to change of residence and other causes, often go to two or three schools in the course of his education. At a large Sunday school in Birmingham, (where change of residence is not likely to operate to the same extent as in London,) it has been observed that the children stay generally about three years; but as the instruction in this school, instead of being confined to reading merely, (as is generally the case,) is extended to writing and arithmetic, it is probable that children remain longer there than in Sunday schools in general. Everything considered, we think we cannot be under-estimating the average length of a Sunday school education if we put it at four years. We will assume, then, that this is the true average; and we also assume that the general period of life when a child is at a Sunday school is from the age of eight to twelve years.

Owing to the kindness of an eminent actuary (Mr. Finlaison), we have before us a table showing the probable number of children in England and Wales at each year of age from one to twenty. We extract as follows (omitting small numbers):—

	Between 8 and 9	—	355,000
	..... 9..... 10	—	345,000
	..... 10..... 11	—	328,000
	..... 11..... 12	—	322,000
Total...	..... 8..... 12	—	1,350,000

Supposing, then, that every child in the country, rich or poor, attended a Sunday school for a space of four years,—namely, from the age of eight to that of twelve,—it is manifest that the above total would be the maximum number of scholars for the whole country.

As, however, there are, in the first place, a great number of children who do not go to school at all, and, in the second place, a great number whose parents would not send their children to a Sunday school, this estimate must be considerably reduced.

We shall not here attempt to determine how many ought to be struck off as belonging to the first class, and can make but a rough estimate of the number belonging to the second. Having no sufficient data whereon to found a calculation, we will assume that the class of those who are not in the habit of sending their sons and daughters to Sunday schools is identical with the class of voters under the Reform Act; though we are convinced that in so placing the line of separation we are putting it somewhat too high. It appears by a Parliamentary Report (the Report of the Committee for Inquiring into the Expenses of Elections), that the number of persons living in houses assessed at a rent of at least 10*l.* a-year, and who, having paid up their taxes, &c. were registered in 1834 as qualified to vote for members of parliament, was about 200,000. This number does not include county voters, or ten-pound householders living in villages and towns which do not send members to parliament; it shows merely the number of voters qualified under the Reform Act, and dwelling in English or Welsh cities and boroughs which are repre-

sented in parliament. These cities and boroughs contain altogether a population of about 5,000,000, or about one-third part of the entire population of England and Wales. It would not, however, be safe to assume that the class of persons, of which the voters in the cities and boroughs form a part, is three times as numerous in the whole country as it is in the cities and boroughs; seeing that in proportion to their numbers the population of towns is probably more wealthy than that of rural districts. We shall not however, probably, be estimating the total number of persons in this class too highly if we put it at 500,000; including widows and spinsters who occupy houses of the specified value, but who are not counted in the parliamentary returns.

These 500,000 householders, with their families, must together form a population of about 2,200,000, or about one-seventh part of the entire population of England and Wales. A corresponding fraction must of course be struck off from the number of children who might otherwise be in Sunday schools; and thus the total of such children falls from 1,350,000 to about 1,150,000.

It appears then, that without deducting for the crowds of children who are growing up without receiving education, the total number of children in England and Wales who, under present circumstances, are at any one period going to Sunday schools, cannot be more than about 1,150,000.

Let us now inquire how these 1,150,000 are to be disposed of among the several School societies. In the first place, the Sunday School Union claims 900,000! Then the National Society claims a *million!*—namely,

500,000 for themselves, and 500,000 for clergymen of the Established Church, not in union with their society.* After each society has in this way taken as its portion nearly the whole number in existence, we are at a loss what number of children to allot to those schools which do not come within the pale of either society, (for each society is fenced with doctrinal barriers,)† and to schools also whose supporters, while

* The words of the Report are, "They (the committee) have no hesitation in stating that there are upwards of a million children receiving education under the immediate superintendence of the clergy in England and Wales; about one-half of which number are contained in the schools of the National Society."

Report for 1834, p. 15.

In speaking of the children who are educated by clergymen not in connexion with the National Society, it is probably intended to include children of the middle and higher classes. Making, however, every allowance for these, the number claimed as educated gratuitously by the National Society and its branches must still be equal nearly to the total number of children in all the charity schools in the country.

The difficulty of so large a fraction of the children being claimed, as well by the National Society as by the Sunday School Union, cannot be explained by saying that the National Society provides week-day instruction only, and that the same children may attend their schools on the week-day, and the schools of the Union on Sunday. The children belonging to the National schools (as these schools are erroneously called) are required to come to school on Sunday, in order that their attendance at church may be secured.

† The subjoined is extracted from the regulations of the Sunday School Union, given in the report for last year (1834):—

"The following resolution was adopted by the committee, 17th June 1834: That the auxiliary and country schools be recommended to admit into connexion with them such schools only whose conductors are of an orderly character, and who hold the doctrines of the Deity and atonement of Jesus Christ, the divine influence of the Holy Spirit, and that 'all Scripture is given by inspiration of God.'"

they agree for the most part with the leaders of the Sunday School Union in articles of faith, refuse nevertheless to ally themselves with any who make a difference in religious opinion a ground for exclusion from the benefits of education. At Stockport, in Cheshire, there is a noble school of this latter kind, containing no fewer than *four thousand children*. No child is stopped at the door of that school by doctrinal tests of any kind: the school is open to all, and all mingle in harmony within its walls.

Again, there are many schools under the partial or entire management of Quakers and Unitarians; and we do not suppose there is a single instance of a school supported by either of these sects having any connexion with the Sunday School Union: indeed, the Unitarians would be excluded from such alliance by the religious test already cited.

The Roman Catholics, too, have their Sunday schools, (though we do not know to what extent,) and we may presume that these form no part of the Sunday School Union.

There is thus no doubt that a considerable reduction must be made in the estimated total number of children in Sunday schools before we obtain the right number to be divided between the National Society and the Sunday School Union. Instead of each society really counting nearly a million of children in its ranks, we think it probable that the number educated by the two societies together falls short of 700,000. If, however, each society, or rather the local committees in connexion with each society, give useful instruction to 350,000 children, or any such number, they are effecting a great deal, and deserve the sincere acknow-

ledgments of their country. No exaggeration in the statement of the extent of their labours can in any way cancel the debt of obligation. How far the instruction given *is* of a useful kind, is of course yet to be determined. We ourselves are of opinion, that although it is exceedingly meagre, and often given with little regard to the improvement of the reasoning powers, or the formation of habits of cheerful industry, yet, considering how (under present circumstances) the children would probably be employed if they did not attend these schools, a great balance of advantage is obtained.

From what has been said, we think it must appear evident that the only existing reports that can be confided in are those of a particular and local nature; and in most of these even there must be many sources of error. But if there be so much difficulty in obtaining an accurate statement of the number of children receiving education, what hope is there of obtaining (by the present means) any correct account of the *kind of education given*, the discipline by which it is enforced, the acquirements really made, and the effect produced on the *habits* of the children, with a review of the advantages acquired in after life?

Such information on a large scale can only be obtained by men accustomed to collect, weigh, and report evidence; and even these must act under a strong feeling of responsibility for the accuracy of their statement. Without the establishment of some plan securing both these advantages, our knowledge of the real state of education in this country, and of the effects it has produced, must remain, as at present,

vague and uncertain to a most unfortunate and pernicious extent.

Little, we fear, will be accomplished by means of the queries issued from the Home Office, in the autumn of 1833, in accordance with a motion made by the Earl of Kerry in the House of Commons. The overseers of parishes to whom these queries are addressed, are, we fear, quite as likely to fail in giving a correct account of the numbers of schools and of pupils in their respective districts, as in making an accurate return of the number of houses rated at 10*l.* a year.* As to the more important inquiry into the nature and extent of the education given, that is not even attempted, from the utter hopelessness, we presume, of any valuable or trustworthy information being obtained. It is, in fact, unreasonable to call upon men who (especially in the rural districts) have had but small advantages of education, and who are forced into office contrary to their inclination, and without any remuneration, to perform duties such as those we have spoken of. Limited, therefore, as are the objects of the Government inquiry, there is reason to fear that the information furnished will be at once very defective, and unworthy of trust.†

* Poor Law Report, Appendix A, page 50.

† This was written several months ago. The admirable and interesting Report which has just appeared of a Committee of the Statistical Society of Manchester, giving the result of a careful personal examination into the state of education in that town, fully confirms our anticipations of the erroneous character of the official returns, so far as Manchester is concerned; and there is no reason to suppose that the returns from other places are more accurate. The following is extracted from the Report of the Statistical Society:—

To the Report of the Commissioners for Inquiring concerning Charities, the cause of popular education is indebted for much valuable information respecting the amount of funds which have been left for its support, and are still available for its purposes. In other respects, however, the Report does not contain much that is important.

Although many valuable and striking facts relating to the state of education are to be found in the Reports of the Poor Law and Factory Commissions, (especially in the former,) yet the objects of these commissions being but indirectly connected with education, the information furnished on this subject is necessarily somewhat limited and desultory.

The inquiry before the Education Committee of

" That some more accurate account was required of the schools and number of scholars in the borough than any already existing, will be made evident by comparing the returns to Government under Lord Kerry's motion, previously referred to, with those which have been drawn up from the more careful investigations of your committee. They have been able to obtain copies of the returns made to Government from only three of the nine townships of the borough, viz. Manchester, Chorlton-on-Medlock, and Hulme.

" In the township of Manchester alone, which contains a population of 142,000, there are entirely omitted, in these returns, one infant school, ten Sunday schools, and 176 day schools, which existed at the period these returns were made, and contained 10,611 scholars. False returns were made by one individual of three Sunday schools that never existed at all, and which were stated to contain 1,590 scholars; and double returns were made of three other schools, containing 375 scholars, so that the total error in these returns for the township of Manchester alone was 181 schools and 8,646 scholars. Besides this, eight dame schools were reported as infant schools.

" In Chorlton-on-Medlock, containing a population of 20,500,

the House of Commons, which has sat during the last two sessions, is important, and much valuable evidence has been elicited. Still, all acquainted with the nature of investigations before parliamentary committees, the mode in which witnesses are selected, and the insufficiency of cross-examination when the person who gives evidence is far removed from the spot where the occurrences which he relates happened, are aware how dangerous it is to draw conclusions from the statements which usually form the bulk of a committee's report.

With the exception of parliamentary returns now antiquated, we believe we have now enumerated nearly all the important sources of information respecting the state of education; and it must be admitted that

the returns made to Government show too small a number by 40 schools and 837 scholars. One infant school (a private establishment) was not returned at all; and one Sunday school, which had ceased to exist for more than a year, was returned with 222 scholars.

"In Hulme, containing a population of 9,600, the returns made to Government show too small a number by 14 schools and 864 scholars; and though there was not one infant school in the township, four dame schools, with 112 scholars, were returned under that title. A Sunday school with 112 scholars was also returned under that title. A Sunday school with 102 scholars was also returned which belongs to another township; and another with 400 scholars was altogether omitted."

We confess that, in our opinion, the little work from which the above is extracted contains more really useful information, and might more safely be taken as the basis of a general legislative enactment, than all the huge folios which are made up of the returns sent in obedience to the order of the House of Commons; and we do trust that no more public time will be wasted in the collection and digest of such flimsy materials.

the knowledge to be gleaned from them is but small. Such materials, however, as we do possess, we shall endeavour to form into a connected whole, with a view of giving our readers some idea of the actual state of education in this country.

Before doing this, however, it is perhaps necessary to warn our readers against a common error by which, in treating of education, one branch of the subject is totally overlooked. We allude to indirect education; or that undesigned course of training which we all undergo, and which varies in individual cases, according to the circumstances by which the recipient is surrounded: such, for example, as the nature of the trade or profession by which he earns his livelihood,—the degree of enlightenment, civilization, wealth, and comfort at which his country may have arrived—the standard of morality which may there obtain—the nature of its political institutions, &c. In comparison with the operation of these causes on his mind, his feelings, and his physical powers, the effects of any system of mere school education will be found very moderate. If, however, these two kinds of education act in unison, their power is great indeed.

In England, the state of indirect education is beyond doubt comparatively high: indeed, unless we are to except some parts of America, we do not imagine that in this respect England is rivalled by any country in the world. The beautiful processes of manufacture which the English people are constantly witnessing, and in which they are actively engaged; the admirable machinery which they are employed in constructing and directing; the excellent system of internal economy observable in many of our large ma-

nufactories; the ample field ever at hand for the exercise of skill, and the rewards with which successful efforts are crowned,—these must all act most beneficially in developing the minds and in cultivating the taste of our artisans: while the high state of excellence to which the agriculture of the country has been carried must do much towards raising the intellectual character of the peasantry. Again, the proceedings of our courts of justice and of our public meetings, as also the reports of the debates in parliament, must all call into play the reasoning and reflective powers of the people at large; while a considerable class of the community are daily called upon as jurors, to weigh and judge of evidence;—as electors, to balance comparative merits;—or, as tradesmen, manufacturers, or members of some great company, to organize and direct large bodies of men.

At the same time, a strong tendency towards the formation of good habits must arise from witnessing the comparative regularity with which the laws are here enforced, the order and tranquillity which generally prevail, the esteem which is usually paid to virtue, and the disgrace which, for the most part, attaches to vice.

This practical education is of the highest value; but because we are so fortunate as to command its advantages, we should not therefore neglect the benefits of direct education: on the contrary, the high state of the one is necessary for the full development of the beneficial powers of the other. The fruit to be gathered in after-life by attention to early education is multiplied ten-fold if there be genial warmth to ripen it.

We now go on to consider the state of direct or formal education in England, and particularly among the labouring and poorer classes. And first, as to the means which exist for affording such education. The schools provided for the labouring and poorer classes in this country are of various kinds. Those, however, in which the greatest numbers are educated, are day schools (conducted on the plan of Dr. Bell or Mr. Lancaster) and Sunday schools. In the Sunday schools the education given is wholly gratuitous: in most of the day schools, it is so only in part; a small weekly payment, varying from one penny to threepence, being generally required.

The number of endowed schools in England and Wales is very great, and their total revenue is of vast amount: the precise sum, however, cannot be ascertained until the Commission for inquiring into the subject has completed its labours. Still, from the materials already collected, we may form a tolerably accurate estimate of the whole. The Commissioners have already completed their reports for more than half the counties in England and Wales; and these reports, containing a precise account of every separate endowment, have been published. It appears that the income arising from charitable bequests (chiefly for the purposes of education), in the counties of York, Cumberland, Surrey, Huntingdon, Bedford, and a number of others, containing together about one-half the population of England and Wales, amounts to no less a sum than 428,000*l.* per annum, giving for England and Wales a probable income of between 800,000*l.* and 900,000*l.* exclusive of the revenues of the two great universities. But when we consider

in how many instances funds have been carelessly and fraudulently managed, it is safe to assume that, under an honest and intelligent direction, this income would be very greatly enlarged.*

In addition to the schools on the systems of Bell and Lancaster, the Sunday schools, and the various endowed schools, we have many schools for children labouring under particular infirmities; such, for instance, as those for the blind, and for the deaf and dumb. There are schools also for the reception and reform of juvenile vagrants and juvenile offenders; asylums for orphans, &c. Again, there are about 150 infant schools in England and Wales; and there are some adult schools. Lastly, there are the mechanics' institutions; now numbering from 100 to 150, and containing probably about 20,000 members.

KIND OF EDUCATION GIVEN.

The school education of our working and poorer classes is, with few exceptions, very meagre. Even in the day schools the instruction seldom extends beyond reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic; and in by far the greater portion of the Sunday schools reading alone is taught.† An imperfect acquaintance

* See the speech of Lord Chancellor Brougham in the House of Lords, April 16th, 1834.

† A gentleman who takes an active interest in all that relates to popular education, and who has had many opportunities of collecting facts on the subject, declares that he does not believe that in more than one Sunday school out of a hundred is anything taught beyond reading. It must, however, be borne in mind that many who go to a Sunday school also attend a day school, or perhaps an evening school, held once or twice a week.

with the subjects mentioned, together with a certain amount of religious knowledge, is all that is even attempted to be given in our popular schools.

While we zealously maintain that such an amount of direct instruction is far, very far better than no instruction at all, it must be admitted that it is little indeed compared with what it is the duty and true interest of the country to afford. Can it be wondered at that drunkenness, idleness, and crime should abound, when so little is done to excite nobler tastes,—to create a love of rational employment, and foster habits of industry? or to trace, explain, and illustrate the real opposition that exists between vicious practices and the true interests of those who indulge in them? Is it surprising that both children and adults should continue to seek for gratification in annoying and tyrannizing over their fellow-members of the human family, or in torturing the lower animals, when so little is done to cherish the kindlier feelings? or to point out how the happiness of every one depends on that of his neighbours and associates? Is it inexplicable that men should go on to destroy machinery, burn hayricks, and combine in attempts to break through the laws which regulate wages—laws as immutable as those of gravity—where no care is taken to instruct them (ere the prejudice of ignorance has taken root) in the principles of political science? and to show them that, while such acts are hurtful to society at large, their direct mischief recoils on the heads of the perpetrators?

Until our system of education embraces these and many other objects, it must be regarded as imperfect; and the country will have to blame itself for a great

portion of the crime and wretchedness which still abound. On the nature and extent of an efficient system of education, however, we shall have to speak fully in another part of our work: we have at present to consider what *is*, rather than what *ought to be*.

While it is true that, in most of our popular schools, the course of instruction is confined within the narrow limits we have mentioned, we are happy to say that there are many schools in which a somewhat wider range is adopted, and that the general tendency is certainly onward. Particularly in many of the schools connected with the British and Foreign School Society has much that is good been recently introduced, as we shall presently see.

One improvement, which we hope is spreading, (an improvement, in our opinion, of great importance,) consists in the mixture of manual labour (under qualified instructors) with the ordinary business of school education. So high indeed is our opinion of this improvement, and so beneficial the results that we anticipate from its introduction, that, singular as the speculation may appear to some of our readers, we cannot but hope to see the day when, instead of being confined to a very few schools, and these without exception of the humbler kind, the use of productive labour as a means of education will be generally adopted in schools for all classes, the highest as well as the lowest. Its introduction, we are persuaded, will, under good management, be followed in all cases by a most salutary effect, as well on the health and comfort of the scholars, as on their moral feelings and mental vigour.

Among the schools of industry to which we refer,

one of the best which we have had an opportunity of inspecting is in Gower's Walk, Whitechapel, London. Placed in the heart of a district densely peopled with the poorer classes, the school owes but little to situation for the contentment and cheerfulness observable in the scholars, whose lively appearance cannot fail to strike every visiter; while the value of the acquirements they are making is amply manifested in the eagerness shown on the one hand to procure admission to the school, and on the other to obtain the departing pupils as apprentices. When we visited the school (in July last year), there were two long lists of applicants, the one of masters waiting for children, the other of parents wishing to send their sons and daughters as scholars.

The industrial occupation of the boys is printing; that of the girls, needlework. There are altogether about 200 children in the school, rather more than one half of whom are boys. Both boys and girls are in attendance during seven hours each day. Four hours of this time are given to the usual business of a school,—namely, reading, writing, and arithmetic: the remaining three hours are employed by the girls in needlework, and the boys in printing; with this restriction however, that no boy is allowed to join the class of printers (a privilege much coveted) until he can read, write, and cipher with a certain degree of facility. This regulation is found to act very beneficially in furnishing a motive for increased diligence in the school-room. The printers, in number about sixty, are divided into three classes, some one class being always in the printing-office, and the others in the school-room. Thus the boys are refreshed and

relieved by an alternation of manual and mental labour, and both the school-room and printing-office are constantly occupied.

We were much pleased by the scene of life and bustle among the little printers. No lolling and yawning,—no wistful looks at the slow-moving hands of the clock; the signs of cheerful industry were visible in every face, were apparent in the quick motion of every limb. The last time we called at the school happened to be on a holiday afternoon; but no stillness of the printing-office notified the term of relaxation. The busy hand of the compositor was moving to and fro as usual, and the pressman was tugging at his screw-bar with as much energy as ever. On inquiry we found that the boys engaged were a class of volunteers, who, incredible as it may appear at Eton or Winchester, preferred passing their holiday at work to spending it in play.

We particularly inquired whether the little printers entered fairly into competition with their elders in the same profession; or whether, in point of fact, there was not some protection,—some favour of friends conceding better terms than are allowed elsewhere. We were, however, assured that the school depends on no partiality of the kind; that, on the contrary, a prevailing prejudice against work done by boys depresses their prices below those usually given for work executed in the same style. It is of course necessary that the little fellows should work many more hours than an adult printer in order to obtain an equal remuneration: what the latter would get through in a day may occupy one of them a week, a fortnight, or even a month: but as the work is paid for by the piece,

it is evident that the increased time is followed by no additional recompense.

As evidence of the neatness of the work, it is sufficient to refer to the Reports of the National Society, which are always printed by these children. So far as appears to us, the typography of these books bears no mark of inferiority, and we believe it furnishes no clue to the age of those by whom it was executed save what is found in the imprint, "School Press, Gower's Walk, Whitechapel." It is proper to remark, that the boys receive a good deal of instruction and assistance in the practice of their art; but the cost of this aid is taken out of the proceeds of the printing, which even after this deduction furnish a considerable sum towards the general expenses of the school, and finally give a handsome surplus to be divided among the boys.

With these and many other interesting particulars we were furnished by Mr. French (the very intelligent master), who now gives an example of the value of the institution by the ability with which he conducts the school, from which he derived his own education.

It appears that the school has existed on its present footing for nearly thirty years. The building, which was formerly a sugar bakehouse, was applied to its present use by the benevolent and enlightened founder of the school, Mr. Davies, who also endowed the school with the sum of 2000*l.* in the Three per Cent. Consols. The income of 60*l.* a year arising from this sum, and the use of the building rent free, are all that interfere with the self-supporting character of the establishment. Yet with this moderate help is a school carried on in which two hundred children re-

ceive a comparatively good education, being trained in habits of cheerful industry, taught a useful art, and moreover instructed in the ordinary branches of a school education. And not only is all this effected, but a sum of money averaging more than 100*l.* a year is divided among the children according to their respective savings; one half being immediately distributed in the form of pocket-money, and the remainder set aside to meet the expenses of outfit, apprentices' premium, &c. at the time of departure. A boy will in this way accumulate 4*l.*, 5*l.*, 6*l.*, or even 10*l.* before leaving the school; no inconsiderable sum for a lad in this rank of life to start with in the world.

The monthly gains of the little printers average about three shillings per boy, though sometimes an individual will have to receive as much as six shillings. A savings' bank has lately been opened in the school as an additional encouragement to thrifty habits, and the smallest sums down to a single halfpenny are received. Most of the children have become depositors, though they are quite at liberty to keep their money in their own possession. The bank was opened last February, and when we visited the school in July the deposits amounted to 23*l.*

One boy, a lad of thirteen years of age, was pointed out, who alone had deposited 1*l.* in this short time. This little fellow was of course one of the volunteer workers on the holiday afternoon; and we learnt that, not satisfied with the labour of the printing-office, he was in the habit of carrying out milk before he came to school in the morning, and of helping his father, a gunmaker, in the evening.

From time to time the money collected in the

school savings' bank is placed in the public savings bank of the district, and the interest received is distributed in just shares among the boys. Each one is periodically furnished with a full statement of his account; and it is needless to say that, on passing into his hands, the document is certain to be subjected forthwith to a most rigorous audit.

Without shutting our eyes to the defects of the system we have attempted to describe,—effects however by no means peculiar to it,—we feel ourselves fully warranted in setting a very high value on its advantages. In the formation of good habits—a principal object of early education—the effect of such plans must be far greater than is produced in many a school of high pretensions and of great expense; and humble as are its objects and its means, the school in Gower's Walk presents much which these prouder establishments would find well worthy of imitation.

It would be interesting to trace the children brought up at this school in their career in life; but without some system of registration such inquiries are very difficult. So far, however, as the master of the school has had opportunities of learning, the subsequent conduct of the pupils is very good. Many are known to have become thriving men and respectable members of society; and in no one instance did the master ever hear of a child educated at Gower's Walk being convicted of an offence against the laws of his country.

Another school of industry which we have visited with much gratification is the Brenton Asylum at Hackney Wick, near London, intended principally for the reception of juvenile vagrants. The plan of the society by which this asylum is supported, just

termed the Children's Friend Society—is to take children who, owing to the manner in which they have been brought up, are unable to obtain an honest livelihood; to give these children a rude kind of education, and then to send them to a country where labour is more in demand than it is in England: thus at once to cut them off from their old connexions, and give them an opportunity of establishing a new character.

Hitherto most of the children have been sent to the Cape of Good Hope, where a society has been formed in connexion with that in London, by means of which situations are procured, and a certain degree of superintendence is kept up after the children have been placed out as apprentices.

The institution has been on its present footing about two years and a half, and during that time it appears to have effected a great deal. In the year ending May 1st, 1834, nearly 250 children passed through the asylum, were sent out to the Cape, and were placed in situations where they could at once earn their maintenance. It has not yet been ascertained with certainty at what expense to the society these objects are attained. Hitherto the cost per head has been estimated at 12*l.* 10*s.* including board, lodging, and clothing for three months (the average time a child remains in the asylum), the boy's outfit on leaving the school, and his passage to the Cape. On the payment of this sum, the society has been willing to receive a child from a non-subscriber. It appears, however, that this estimate is somewhat below the actual expense, and it is proposed to raise the charge to 15*l.*

The average number of children in the school of

this excellent institution is about fifty, and their ages vary generally from ten to fourteen years. Their time is divided between productive labour (chiefly agricultural) and school exercises; six hours a day being given to the former, and three hours to the latter. The first practical knowledge inculcated on a novitiate in this society is, that his comforts in life will depend mainly on his own exertions; nay, that if he indulges in idleness, he may want the very necessaries of life. He is informed at the outset, that he will have to labour to earn at least a part of his maintenance before he will have food to eat. The justice of this regulation is explained; and so clear is the principle that every one ought to do what he can for himself before claiming assistance from others, that few even of the dullest can be proof against the demonstration. We may here observe, that great care is taken in all cases to show the boys the reasonableness of the regulations to which they are required to submit. "You must, *because* you must," is not the logic of Hackney Wick. Everything is effected (as far as possible) by addressing the understandings, and working upon the good feelings of the boys; and the poor lads, surprised and delighted at hearing (perhaps for the first time in their lives) the voice of kindness and intelligence, frequently yield without a struggle, and enter at once on a course of good conduct.

On the other hand, there is no want of decision and firmness in the management of the refractory. Stern reproof and effectual punishment, though not disfiguring the front of the picture, have nevertheless a place in the background, and at the call of necessity

stand forth sufficiently conspicuous. Solitary confinement, however, for a space rarely exceeding twelve hours at a time, is the utmost severity admitted or required: corporal punishment in none of its disgusting forms is ever employed. And thus are these poor children, born and bred though they be under circumstances the most adverse to the development of the intellect and moral feeling, treated, and successfully treated, like rational beings; while it is deemed essential to the safety of Eton and Winchester to subject their high-born and high-bred foster-sons to treatment from which the humanity of our law protects in a measure even the brute creation.

The most thoroughly lazy and troublesome boys that come into the school are, the master assured us, from ill-managed workhouses. These children, whose experience has probably taught them to consider threats as mere idle vapouring, commence with disbelieving that in their new situation labour alone will entitle them to food. "I don't come here to work," and so forth, is muttered with the usual doggedness. In such a case, the boy is allowed to take his course: his companions go at the regular hour to their labour, and a portion is allotted to him also; so many yards of digging, perhaps, or any other task of a simple kind. This he may neglect as long as he chooses; but he finds that until it is completed no dinner is ready for him. After a time, nature gains the mastery, and the boy sets to work; and it rarely happens that he tries the experiment of obstinacy a second time.

The shortness of the term usually passed in the asylum must of course render it difficult for the children to acquire such skill in cultivating the land

as would enable them to do much towards defraying the cost of their maintenance. Their field must be looked upon as a school, in which they are receiving lessons (and most valuable lessons they are) with a view principally of future advantage. For the sake of such instruction, it would be well worth while hiring land for cultivation, even if the produce did not pay the rent; the reason, even in this extreme case, being at least as strong as that which induces us to furnish the young tyro with a copy-book, despite the foreknowledge that his pothooks will have no other immediate effect than that of destroying the value of the paper on which they are scrawled. In point of fact, however, the boys do raise a crop, which more than repays the cost of the land and all expenses connected with its cultivation. Nor is this all the labour they perform; for, under the direction of the mistress of the asylum, they do all the washing, cleaning, cooking, and other household work, no servant being kept at the establishment. The boys also repair their own clothes and their own shoes, under the care of journeymen in the different crafts, who for a small sum attend occasionally to teach them.

The school is conducted on the monitorial system; and we were glad to observe that instruction is given on the meaning of words, and on other subjects calculated to awaken the intellectual powers. The adoption of such improvements we should have expected from the superior intelligence which marks many of the regulations of the asylum. This superiority is in a great measure due to the benevolent founder of the institution, Captain Brenton, R. N.: much credit must also be given to Mr. Wright, the master of the asy-

lum, for the zeal, skill, and good feeling with which he performs his duties.

The boys appeared to be contented and happy: and this fact is confirmed as well by the excellent health they enjoy, as by the fact of their remaining in the asylum; for the doors are open to all who may wish to leave—a facility of which some very few have at different times availed themselves.

Notwithstanding, however, that the condition of these children when in the asylum is one of comparative comfort, they look forward with eagerness to the time when they are to go out as emigrants. Doubtless this desire is in some measure based on the love of novelty—the wish for adventure—the admiration of what is unknown: in few instances, alas! is it restrained by any strong bonds of affection—any ties of love that bind them to the scenes and partners of their former life. But perhaps the change derives its greatest attractions from that regulation of the establishment which allots early departure as a mode of distinction and a reward for good conduct. The boys are divided into three classes, from the highest of which the emigrants are drafted. Promotion depends principally on moral improvement; but a boy is not admitted to the highest class until he has made a certain progress in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and can handle his farming tools tolerably well.

It may readily be supposed that obstacles to the right working of the plan sometimes arise from the connexions of those for whose benefit it is intended. Occasionally the parents endeavour to dissuade the children from going out, but the boys are generally

firm in their resolution. A recent instance was mentioned to us, in which this attempt was repeatedly made by the father and mother of an intelligent boy, who had conducted himself exceedingly well in the asylum. One day coming to the school half-intoxicated, they resorted to threats and imprecations. The boy, however, continued steady in his resolution, saying, "Father, you know it is of no use: if I go home again, I shall be sure to get with Tom Jenkins and Jack Smith, and then I shall be as bad as ever." We wish all who talk learnedly on the subject of crime had as great an insight into its true causes as this poor child.

The results of the plan hitherto are promising; the accounts received of the conduct of children who have emigrated are satisfactory; and instances have occurred in which parents have appeared before the committee with letters from their children, and with tears of gratitude have expressed their thanks for what has been done for them. Still it must be admitted that the experiment has not yet been fully tried; nor would it be safe to pronounce upon its success until it has stood the test of time.

There are some other schools of industry with which we have had opportunities of becoming acquainted, and which are well deserving of attention. We refer particularly to the Refuge for the Destitute at Hoxton, the Warwick County Asylum, and Mr. Allen's School at Lindfield, Sussex. The first two are like the asylum at Hackney Wick, excepting that their inmates are drawn from a yet more depraved class of society; Mr. Allen's School, of which we shall

speak presently, is intended for the children of the peasantry.

At the Refuge for the Destitute, the average number of inmates is about 150; namely, 80 or 90 males, and 60 or 70 females; their age varying from 12 to 18 or 19. Here, as at Hackney Wick, the chief means of reform are employment and kind treatment. We passed through the male department in company with a member of the committee, and were much struck with the affectionate manner in which he accosted the inmates, and the simple yet touching appeals he made to their moral and religious feelings.

We happened to arrive at the establishment during the hours of leisure; and as we passed by a window overlooking an open area on one side of the building, we saw a large party of the boys engaged in some active game. It was pleasing to witness the innocent mirth of those who hitherto, under the burden of guilt, had probably tasted but little real pleasure of any kind. Our conductor, a Quaker gentleman, was delighted with the spectacle, and rubbing his hands with great glee, exclaimed, "Is not it a noble sight?" After a time the bell rang for them to return to their work, and in a few minutes every one was diligently occupied. The trades taught are those of the tailor and shoemaker; and every boy is, we believe, allowed to choose his occupation. Part of each boy's earnings is set aside for the boy's own use. The money, however, is neither put at his immediate disposal, nor even placed in his hands at his departure from the asylum, but reserved until he has completed his twentieth year; and even then his claim must be

backed by a satisfactory report of his conduct during his apprenticeship.

The beginners are put under the care of those who have acquired some little skill in their art; and as these latter are still expected to perform their own duty, they are allowed, in recompense for the trouble of instruction, a certain share in their pupils' earnings. The whole are overlooked by intelligent persons, themselves experienced workmen.

The efficacy of this plan is shown by the smallness of the premium required with the boys when they are put out as apprentices. Places with board, lodging, and clothing are readily found for them at a premium of five pounds each; a much smaller sum, we understand, than is required with boys who have their trade yet to learn.

A distinct account is kept of all the receipts and expenditure connected with the trades carried on; and it is found that the clothes and shoes which the boys make sell for about as much as the cost of production, including the salaries of the master-workmen (together about 300*l.* a-year), and expenses of every kind.

Considering that the boys enter the asylum for the most part with very lazy habits, and that as soon as they have acquired a little dexterity in their trade they are withdrawn, this result must be regarded as very satisfactory. The work of the females is more productive; their art, from its superior facility, being more immediately profitable, though from the same cause less valuable in the long-run. They are employed in washing; and besides doing all that is required for the Refuge, they earn about 400*l.* a year

clear profit. (The expenses connected with the washing department last year were about 1050*l.* and the receipts 1464*l.*)

The boys had a clean and neat appearance, and seemed to work diligently and cheerfully; and the superintendent reported well of their general conduct and demeanour. In cases where remonstrance proves insufficient, the ordinary punishments are withdrawal of animal food and solitary confinement. Occasionally, however, corporal punishment is also resorted to.

It cannot be expected that any great moral reform can be worked in the space of a year and a half, in a youth of sixteen or seventeen years of age. Nevertheless, the subsequent accounts of those who have passed through the asylum show that a good deal is accomplished. Many who were formerly inmates of the Refuge are now known to be living in comfort and respectability; and there are some even who have become annual subscribers to that institution, the doors of which they once entered as outcasts of society.

The following extract from the last Report speaks well for the conduct of the young men after they have been placed out as apprentices:—

"In the tailors' and shoemakers' departments also the work proceeds with great activity. In each of these trades nearly forty young men are annually instructed by competent masters; and of those who have been placed out as apprentices, the number who through the past year received the usual gratuities for good conduct amounts to THIRTY-FOUR."

It thus appears that, even under great limitation as to time, a wholesome discipline of industry, regularity, and cleanliness, accompanied with kind yet firm

treatment, and moral and religious admonition, is not without a powerful effect on the character. While, too, the boys are thus strengthened against temptation, one of the causes of temptation is removed, by their having the means of earning an honest livelihood placed within their reach. In contemplating, however, the amount of good which the humane and enlightened supporters of the Refuge for the Destitute are dispensing, it is melancholy to observe that, for want of larger funds, the committee is compelled to send away many applicants for admission. To what extent this is the case, the following extract from the Report will show:—

"During twenty-eight years that the Refuge has been open to the public, upwards of four thousand three hundred juvenile outcasts have received maintenance and instruction within its walls; many of whom are now respectable members of society, and some are subscribers to that institution by which they were early rescued from destruction. It is distressing, however, to be obliged to add, that the number of young applicants for relief against whom, on account of *want of funds*, the Refuge has been obliged to shut its doors, has amounted to considerably more than six thousand, and may be calculated at no less than three hundred annually. An appalling reflection! To think that every year upwards of three hundred young persons, generally discharged from prisons, who are earnestly desirous to forsake their abandoned courses, and who are capable of being made valuable members of society, are, for want of effectual aid, consigned, there is too much reason to fear, to inevitable ruin!"

It thus appears that, notwithstanding all the efforts

which are made, three hundred unfortunate beings apply in vain every year for admittance to the asylum; whereas the average number received does not exceed one hundred. The funds, nevertheless, at the disposal of the committee are very considerable. Last year the income did not fall far short of 5000*l.*; namely, about 2000*l.* in subscriptions, donations, and legacies, and 3000*l.* in a grant from Parliament. 5000*l.* is a large sum to expend in one year on one hundred and fifty young persons, who are to be supplied with the mere necessaries of life, and to receive an education of the plainest kind. It is true that part of this sum is expended on account of those who have left or are leaving the asylum, and that part goes in apprentice fees, rewards for good conduct, cost of emigration, &c.; but, deducting all these disbursements, the cost of each inmate is upwards of 20*l.* a year, which is equal to half the yearly income of many an honest labourer who has a wife and family to support.

One circumstance which tends to make such establishments as this very expensive is, that they are often placed in large towns, where rent is high and food is dear. In the present instance, for example, the rent and taxes together amount to nearly 300*l.* a year, exclusive of repairs; and the average cost of food is nearly 8*l.* a year per head.

In the rural districts of the North of England, a common charge for the board of in-door paupers appears to be from one shilling and sixpence to two shillings a week, or between four and five pounds a year; and this in workhouse establishments too small to secure any of the advantages of purchase on a large scale. That this low charge is not the result of

a stinted allowance of food, is shown by the following extract from the Report of Captain Pringle, who visited Cumberland as an Assistant Poor Law Commissioner:—

"There are three poor-houses in Carlisle: they appear all to be well managed. The expense per head, for maintenance only, is one shilling and sevenpence or one shilling and eightpence weekly. The diet, milk-porridge for breakfast and supper; meat and broth, with barley-bread, for dinner. The very old have white bread and tea.

"The diet appears to be ample. The same cost for maintenance I found to be very general in the poor-houses of the neighbouring rural parishes."

Poor Law Commissioners' 1st Report, p. 401.

In the island of Guernsey, which is within a few hours' sail of England, there is an asylum containing about 300 inmates, and maintained at a cost of about 2000*l.* a year, or about seven pounds per head. This includes salaries, repairs, and expenses of every kind, with the single exception of rent. With an allowance, however, for rent, it will still be found that the cost per inmate at the asylum in question is but little more than one-third part of that of the Refuge for the Destitute. And yet we have no hesitation in saying, after a personal inspection of both institutions, that the accommodations provided at the Guernsey Hospital (the asylum to which we are referring), and the general comforts of the inmates, are superior to those at the Asylum for the Destitute. The following notice of the Hospitals in Guernsey (there are two of them) is extracted from a brief account of that interesting little island, which we drew

up after visiting it about five years ago. We insert the notice in this place because it bears immediately on our present subject—schools of industry; and because it will show that, although the objects of the Guernsey asylums are somewhat different from those of the Refuge for the Destitute, there is a sufficient resemblance to make the comparison, as regards expense, a fair one. In the main design of their foundation, the Guernsey Hospitals much resemble ordinary workhouses in this country: and the example of Guernsey shows that a workhouse is not necessarily a hot-bed of pauperism; but that, on the contrary, under good management, it will be found a wholesome school of industry and morality, and a powerful check to the spread of pauperism.

"One of the most striking changes which the visitor, either from England or France, meets with on his landing in Guernsey, is the entire absence of beggars. That miserable compound of imposture and real distress, the wandering mendicant, is there unknown. A tradesman, who has been established at St. Peter's Port (the town of the island) for upwards of thirty years, assured me that during the whole period of his residence in the island he had never once seen a beggar. For myself, I neither saw nor heard of one; and I was satisfied from all I learnt, that a beggar is in Guernsey a being of a past age—a creature of history—a fit subject for the speculations of the antiquary, but too completely covered with the dust of ancient times for those of the present day to examine.

"Not only is the island free from beggars, but it is free also from those debased but unfortunate creatures

whom the twilight of evening brings forth from their hiding-places, like swarms of moths, to join the giddy dance round the flame that is soon to destroy them. Prostitution proceeds from the same sources as mendicity—want and ignorance; and where the latter is not found, the former will rarely be met with. Be that as it may, however, the fact is, that the streets and roads of Guernsey are not disgraced by the appearance either of the prostitute or the beggar.

"Two establishments, called the Town and Country Hospitals, exist in the island, to which all persons are sent who, for any reasons whatever, are unable or unwilling to obtain an honest livelihood. In these establishments are to be found females who would otherwise be living by prostitution; the habitual drunkard, the lunatic, the destitute orphan;—all have here an asylum, and are removed from the temptation and misery to which they would otherwise be exposed.

"I visited the Town Hospital, (situated not in the town itself, but in the outskirts,) and I was very much gratified with what I saw. The scene was a busy one. The men were occupied, some in weaving cloth, some as tailors, others as shoemakers, &c. The women were engaged principally in washing. In addition to the washing for the hospital, a great deal is taken in from families living in the neighbourhood, and by this means the women do much towards paying the expense of their maintenance. The greater part of the clothes, shoes, &c. which the men manufacture is sold. The men are also employed in the town as scavengers.

"By thus employing the men and women at profitable labour, instead of setting them to turn a great

stone, as is done in some of our parishes, the expense of the maintenance of the inmates of the hospital is greatly reduced. The average yearly expense of each inmate is not more than *seven pounds*, notwithstanding that at least half of those in the hospitals are boys and girls who produce but little, being the greater part of the day in school; and notwithstanding also that there are many lunatics and infirm people, who are of course unable to do anything towards their own support. The number of inmates in the Town and Country Hospitals together is about three hundred, and their expense to the island is about 2,000*l.* a year

"The arrangements of the hospitals, and the discipline maintained in them, are excellent: at the same time, the inmates are treated with great kindness, are allowed an abundance of good wholesome food, and are well clothed and lodged. Those whose conduct deserves reward are frequently allowed to visit their friends for a day or so; but if the privilege is abused, (as, for instance, if any one returns to the hospital in a state of intoxication,) he is not allowed to leave the hospital again for several months. On the whole, whether we regard these hospitals as asylums from misery, or as schools of morality, I must say, that I have never yet seen any institutions in this country that would bear comparison with them."

On a proper examination, many places could doubtless be found much nearer London than is either Guernsey or the North of England, where establishments like the Refuge for the Destitute could be maintained at much less expense than in town. Distance, however, unless it be very great, would not

under good management be productive of any serious inconvenience. The inhabitants of Bristol, Liverpool, Glasgow, and other places on the western side of our island, know to their cost what a slight hindrance the Irish sea is to the immigration of Irish paupers. Thousands cross it every year at a shilling a head. Nor does travelling by land (except where rapidity is required) necessarily entail much greater expense. How, indeed, should any serious expense arise in the removal of a number of beings who carry with them the means of locomotion? The fact is, the cost ought to consist in little more than the value of the food consumed on the road, and a few pounds of shoe-leather.

Any system, however, for locating people in particular parts of the country, and for transporting them thither at the least possible expense, requires a uniform plan of management, and a general directing power. Indeed, so long as institutions such as the Refuge for the Destitute are dependent on private charity, it is perhaps necessary to place them in towns, in order that they may force themselves on public attention. Still, we deem it a serious evil that the eye of humanity should in every direction fall upon the signs of depravity and woe. The humane feelings, combined with a sense of interest, will in every civilized community prompt the establishment of asylums, sanatory as well as protective, for such as from any cause, physical or moral, are kept in that degree of indigence which strongly tempts to crime. But this once done, it is not just or expedient that people's feelings should be constantly harassed by the immediate neighbourhood of the abodes of vice and

misery: these ought never to be contemplated without emotion. But the man whose daily business carries him through the streets of London would find life insupportable if every object of the kind — gaol, lunatic asylum, or workhouse—were to rouse in him, as often as he passed, that strong feeling which it might awaken in a stranger. Happily for the human frame, such sensations, when too frequently excited, lose much of their poignancy, and thus the smaller evil —apathy—ensues; and we soon learn to pass by the walls of Newgate without bestowing more thought on the ignorant, depraved, and wretched beings who are within a few yards of us, than on the pavement we are treading. To guard against this evil of overwrought feeling on the one hand and apathy on the other, asylums for the wretched should be kept apart from towns.

To return to the more immediate object of this portion of our work. We have mentioned that the inmates of the Refuge for the Destitute are at their entrance almost always found to be totally deficient in habits of industry and regularity. This description agrees exactly with that given of the boys who are placed in the asylum at Hackney Wick and in the Warwick County Asylum, and it is confirmed by the information we obtained in a visit to Newgate. At the Refuge and Hackney Wick, where the circumstances of the boy's previous life are more minutely inquired into than they are at Newgate, we were informed that, generally speaking, the boys were either orphans, or had been neglected by their parents. The superintendent of the Refuge said that the number of instances in which these unhappy boys were under the care of stepmothers was strikingly large.

The forlorn condition of many of these children of crime is forcibly displayed in a table containing a few facts connected with the case of every boy who has passed through the Warwick County Asylum. (See Appendix.) By this table it appears, that out of 88 cases recorded, there are, besides several cases in which the child had but one parent, no less than 54 in which both parents were dead: and that of the remainder, there were no less than 11 cases in which one or both of the parents were known to be thieves, or otherwise of bad character; 5 in which one at least was a drunkard; and 5 in which one at least was a pauper;—in a word, that in 13 cases only had the parents an honest reputation. If information such as this were collected and recorded in every asylum, prison, madhouse and poorhouse in the country, we should soon have a body of facts highly illustrative of the causes of crime, and perhaps in no small degree suggestive of the remedy.

There is one particular in which all our accounts agree, for which we were not prepared; namely, that the children are generally found to be unusually acute and intelligent.* Probably much of this sharpness exists more in appearance than reality; for much low

* In support of this character for acuteness, we had the following anecdote from the present schoolmaster in Newgate. His school having been increased one day by the addition of several young pickpockets, the subject of their art came naturally forward. In the course of conversation, the schoolmaster remarked that any one who allowed his pocket to be picked must be very dull and stupid, and that he was sure no one could ever pick *his* pocket. A few hours, however, brought about a considerable change in his opinion; for in the course of that very day, in his own schoolroom, and by his own scholars, his pocket *was* picked *four times*.

cunning is quite consistent with dull intellect. If a boy receives (as doubtless many do) regular instruction in picking pockets or other such roguery, he will by mere dint of practice acquire a certain dexterity in the art; and as his peculiar cleverness is of a kind which to people in general seldom comes under immediate observation, it is not surprising that the amount of general talent of which it is supposed indicative should be over-estimated. Making, however, every allowance for this source of error, it certainly does appear that the children in the asylums we have mentioned are equal, if not somewhat superior, to the average of boys in natural talent: they learn their different trades very quickly, and, in a word, have the power of acquiring knowledge with ease.

If the thieves and pests of society are in truth supplied principally from the class of quick, intelligent children, heavily indeed is society punished for not watching over its poorer members ere they have acquired bad habits, bad feelings, and baneful prejudices,—for not seizing on the time when their minds and dispositions may be so moulded as to render them honest, useful, and happy.

At the Refuge for the Destitute, where, as at Hackney Wick, a certain portion of the day is allotted to ordinary school exercises, we inquired what proportion of the boys were at their entrance found able to read. "About one in three," was the reply. But upon our asking how many were able to read with sufficient ease *to enjoy what they perused*, the reply was—"Oh, that is a very different question;—not more than *one in forty!*" The information we received at Newgate was of the same kind. Mr. Cotton, the ordi-

nary of the prison, assured us that many of those who said they could read, could in fact do nothing more than repeat the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments.

The Warwick County Asylum is on a much smaller scale than the Refuge for the Destitute or the asylum at Hackney Wick: it is, however, an interesting and valuable institution, reflecting great credit on its supporters, and well deserving attention. It was established about seventeen years ago, principally by the exertion of Sir Eardley Wilmot, Bart. (now M.P. for the northern division of Warwickshire,) a gentleman who has ever taken a benevolent and active interest in the reform of juvenile offenders, and the amendment of the laws concerning them.

Through the kindness of Sir E. Wilmot, we have obtained answers from the governors of the asylum (attested by the honorary secretary) to a number of queries respecting the progress of the institution, and the effects produced. These queries and answers will be found in the Appendix.

It appears that, of 164 children who have passed through the asylum, 93 have been permanently reformed, as shown by their continuance in respectable employ: of the remaining 70, 23 were dismissed for bad conduct, and 48 absconded; and from these two classes, 19 have been subsequently transported for new offences. Compared with the ordinary course of young offenders, this result must be considered very satisfactory.

In some cases a magistrate will consent not to commit a boy to prison, on condition of his entering the County Asylum. In such instances the

boy's reform is found to be comparatively speedy and certain. But where a boy has once been exposed to the contamination of an ill-regulated gaol, (and few of our gaols, we fear, are conducted on even a tolerably good system,) reform becomes both difficult and precarious. So, at any rate, it is found to be at the Warwick Asylum.

It may appear extraordinary to many, that one great obstacle with which the promoters of the asylum have to contend, arises from unwillingness on the part of the parents of young offenders to place their children in the institution;—an institution where they know their children will be kindly treated; where food, clothing, and lodging will be gratuitously furnished; where the rudiments of learning will be given, and the power of earning an honest livelihood imparted.

What we have already cited about the characters of the parents, perhaps explains this reluctance, and shows that it proceeds probably from anything rather than an excessive care concerning their children's comfort. Sir E. Wilmot mentioned an instance to us which occurred at the quarter sessions last spring. A boy had been brought to trial on a serious charge of theft: no doubt existed of his guilt; but owing to a flaw in the indictment, or some other technical error, a verdict of acquittal was returned. Sir Eardley sent for the mother of the boy, and pointed out to her the extreme probability of her son's ending his life at the gallows unless something was immediately done to stop his career, offering at the same time to get him admitted into the County Asylum. By no effort, however, either of persuasion or remonstrance, could he induce this woman to consent to the measure; and, in

point of fact, the boy was again let loose on society: nor is it uncharitable to suppose that his mother looked forward to being a partaker of his future plunder.

We are very glad to learn that an asylum on the plan of the Warwick County Asylum is about to be opened in Glasgow, and that 9000*l.* have been raised for that purpose.

Mr. William Allen's School at Lindfield in Sussex.—We wish our limits would allow us to do ample justice to this valuable institution, and to the merits of its excellent founder. Mr. Allen's reputation, however, for enlightened benevolence stands far too high to require any addition at our hands; while his unostentatious manners show that he is actuated in his good works by a purer and nobler motive than the desire of praise. Truly is he an ornament to the sect to which he belongs,—a sect that has ever been forward in the cause of enlightened humanity.

We visited the school at Lindfield in July 1831, and it had then been established several years. Before fixing on the spot where to build his school, Mr. Allen sent an intelligent young man on a tour through the country to find out where a school was most wanted. After a diligent search, the village of Lindfield was pitched upon, as the centre of a district in which the peasantry were in a very low state of ignorance. Lindfield is on the road from London to Brighton; and is distant from London about thirty-seven miles, and from Brighton fifteen.

Not only did Mr. Allen receive no assistance in building his school, but most of the wealthy inhabitants endeavoured to thwart him; while among the peasantry themselves the most preposterous stories

were afloat respecting his real designs. These poor people had been so little accustomed to see persons act from other than selfish motives, that they could not believe it possible that any one would come and erect a large building, at great cost and trouble to himself, merely from the desire of promoting their good. They felt sure that all this outlay was not without some secret object; and at last they explained all much to their own satisfaction by referring it to the following notable project.—The building was to be applied to the diabolical purpose of kidnapping children: a high palisade was to be thrown up all round it, and other measures taken to prevent entrance or escape; then the school was to be opened, and everything to be carried on smoothly, and with great appearance of kind and gentle treatment, until such a number of children had been collected as would satisfy the rapacious desires of the wretches who had hatched the wicked scheme; when all at once the gates were to be closed upon them, and the poor innocents shipped off to some distant land!

Greatly indeed must a school have been wanted where such unheard-of absurdity could circulate and obtain credence. At length the building (a most substantial and commodious one) was completed, though few indeed were those who at once ventured within the dreaded bounds. However, by dint of perseverance, this number was gradually increased. The few children who did come began in a short time to take home with them sundry pence which they had earned in plaiting straw, making baskets, &c.—arts they were learning at school. The boys began to patch their clothes and mend their shoes, without

their parents having to pay a penny for the word. Meanwhile there came no authentic accounts of ship lying in wait on the neighbouring coast, nor had even the dreaded iron palisades raised their pointed heads. Little by little the poor ignorant creatures became assured that there was nothing to fear, but, on the contrary, much practical good to be derived from sending their children to the school; and that, strange and incredible as it might seem, the London 'gemman' was really come among them as a friend and benefactor.

A breach being thus fairly made in the mud-bank of prejudice, it was not long before the whole mass gave way. In short, the scheme proved so completely successful that at the time we visited the school, almost every child whose parents lived within a distance of three miles was entered as a pupil, the total number on the list being no less than 300; though, from the frequent calls made upon the children for assistance in the fields, and from the bad state of the roads in certain seasons, the number in actual attendance did not exceed 150.

About a hundred of the children form an infant school, their ages varying from a year and a half to seven years. For these a distinct part of the building and a separate play-ground are provided. The remaining two hundred are divided according to sex, the boys' rooms and play-ground being apart from those of the girls.

The children are at school eight hours each day, three being employed in manual labour, and five in the ordinary school exercises. There is a provision for a diversity of tastes in the classes of industry; indeed

the most unbounded liberality is manifest in all the arrangements. Some are employed as shoemakers, others as tailors; and others again at platting, basket-making, weaving, printing, gardening or farming. The children work very cheerfully, and, as we expected, are found to like the classes of industry better than "school." We say we *expected* to find this the case; for until the ordinary plans of instruction in reading, arithmetic, &c. are much improved, and the exercise made more intellectual and interesting, we fear that children will take but little pleasure in their school lessons.

The first employment to which the little workers are put is platting straw. When they are *au fait* at this, which is generally at the end of a few months, they are promoted to some other craft; the one of highest dignity being that of the printer. Before leaving the school, a child will often become tolerably expert in three or four trades. Those who work on the farm have each the sole care of a plot of land measuring one-eighth part of an acre, and each is required to do his own digging, sowing, manuring, and reaping. An intelligent husbandman, however, is always on the ground to teach those who are at fault. The plots of land were all in clean and nice order; and from the variety of produce—oats, turnips, mangel-wurzel, potatoes, and cabbages — the whole had a curious and amusing appearance, reminding one of the quilted counterpanes of former years.

We found the system of *matayer* rent in use, each boy being allowed one half of the produce for himself, the other half being paid for the use of the land, the wear and tear of tools, &c. One lad, twelve years

old, had in this way received no less a sum than twenty-three shillings and sixpence as his share of the crop of the preceding year; and we were told that such earnings were by no means uncommon.

Of course the practical knowledge to be acquired on a miniature farm of this kind would not be sufficient in itself to fit a boy for the cultivation of land upon that large scale on which alone it can be tilled to the greatest advantage; still, he will have learned much that will be of direct use to him on a farm of any size; and, what is far more important, he will have acquired habits of industry, intelligent observation, and forethought: and thus prepared, he will learn as much in a few months, as the dull and ignorant boy, whose only training has been in the hovel or at the plough, will acquire in as many years.

Our notice of schools in which manual labour is combined with exercises which usually form the exclusive subjects of instruction, has already extended to a considerable length; but as we consider this union essential to a good system of education, we are anxious to give the subject full attention. We shall therefore venture to add to what we have brought forward, some extracts from an interesting article "On the Works of Industry," which appeared in the Report of the National Society for the year 1833.

ROYAL MILITARY ASYLUM, CHELSEA.

"There are at present about 600 boys in this school, being half the number under instruction during the time of the late war. The children vary in age from five and six to fourteen years, and are

not employed in works of industry until the age of eleven: little more than three years (at five hours a day in summer, or four hours a day in winter,) can therefore be devoted to learning any trade; and in this short period the boys only work on alternate days, the rest of their time being spent in the school; —yet they make every article of clothing required for their own use.

"Rather less than a hundred boys work as tailors; fifty each day alternately: about the same number are employed in a similar manner, as shoemakers, cap-makers, and in covering and repairing their old school-books; besides which, there are two sets or companies of knitters and of shirt-makers, and others who are engaged as porters, gardeners, in kitchen-work, &c. &c. Everything is done by those who work at the trades except the cutting-out. This branch, requiring more experience, is managed by the old regimental shoe-makers, tailors, &c. who, with aged serjeants and corporals, and their wives, manage the concerns of the institution. The system of monitors and teachers to overlook the other boys at work is generally adopted; while, in addition to the various branches of industry mentioned, the school furnishes a company of drummers and fifers, and an excellent band of music; the players necessarily devoting a considerable part of their time to the practice of their instruments.

"The materials for the shoes, purchased by contract, amount to about 2*s.* 3*d.* a pair; the shoe-making tools, about 3*s.* a set to supply each boy. The stouter children are preferred for the work; and the subdivisions of their labour are of the following kind: — 1st, the easiest for the youngest, closing; 2nd,

the next for the middle set of children, repairing and mending; 3rd, the highest for the oldest, making the new shoes. But all the children learn to work at every part of the shoe, and are sufficient adepts, not merely to supply their own institution, but to make whatever shoes are wanted for the Clergy Orphan School, Saint John's Wood Road. In this manner about 25 new pairs of shoes are made, and 140 pairs mended, in the course of each week."

The article then goes on to notice the industrial occupations in different National schools under different heads.

"*Household Work.*—In most schools for girls, the children clean the school-room, wash towels, and perform whatever services are required of this kind; in many, the boys do the same. Occasionally, a few of the elder girls are instructed in household-work by the schoolmistress at her own dwelling by turns; but little appears to be accomplished in this way. Where the girls are boarded and lodged in a house, a larger supply of such kind of employment is created, and servants' work of all kinds is perfectly acquired. The Poor Reports, vol. vi. p. 69, article 150, give an account of a school at Cheltenham for thirty girls, the chief design of which is to encourage household industry; and a recent report from that place shows that the school is still maintained with success. The children by turns fill the offices of housemaid, cook, &c. and learn to bake bread, &c.

"*Knitting.*—The following National schools have furnished the committee with an account of this branch of industry successfully performed by boys, viz:—Chetton, Salop; Campsall, York; Morley, Der-

by; South Cerney, Gloucester; Stanmore, Middlesex; and Whitechapel, London. There appears to have been no difficulty in introducing the work among the boys, and very little in disposing of the articles made, although the profit upon them is small. Generally, the very young boys are not taught; and sometimes, in the first instance, the elder boys are taken by turns, and a few at a time, into the girls' school, where they see their sisters work and learn from them.

"*Netting.* — Report from the National School at Northleach, Gloucestershire:—All the boys who are old enough, *i. e.* all who are six years of age, learn netting. A lady staying here on a visit first taught the schoolmistress and some of the children. The twine is bought from a shop in the town; the needles and pins cost about 9*d.* a pair, but doubtless they might be made for less. The twine is 1*s.* 6*d.* or 1*s.* 8*d.* a pound, and the consumption of it is rapid. The disposal of the nets is the principal difficulty. Cabbage-nets are chiefly the article manufactured. Several of the parents send the string; in which case they have the nets their own children make, and dispose of them as they can.

"A correspondent from another part of the country suggests that twine-spinning might be very well combined with the above work, and that it is an employment suited more particularly for the neighbourhood of the sea, on account of the demand for fishing-nets.

"*Tailors' Work.*—To the schools already mentioned in which this kind of work is taught, may be added the Tandridge School, Surrey; the Sudbury School, Salop; and the United Day Schools of St. George's, Hanover Square, where 250 boys are edu-

cated, and 50 instructed in tailors' work, under a separate master. These children work alternately 25 at a time, like the boys in the Military School, the other half being in the school-room with the rest of the boys. They make their own clothes.

"The first-named school has furnished the following account, showing how easily, under an intelligent and well-disposed master, a work of industry may be introduced among children: — 'The master had no previous knowledge of tailoring: he at first tried to make a jacket out of an old coat to give to one of the boys, by drawing the pattern of one worn by another boy, and then cutting it out in brown paper, and the cloth by the paper pattern. This was given to a girl to sew, who was often obliged to consult with the master as to the manner in which she should proceed. But the experiment was successful; and this induced him, with consent of the committee, to try the plan on a larger scale. He continued himself to cut out from his paper pattern, and employed two or three of the girls at first in teaching some of the boys to sew in the afternoon. Jackets and trousers of fustian lined throughout with calico are the articles he has taught them to make. He has 55 boys in the school, 50 of whom can work. The beginners are taught to sew little waste pieces of fustian or calico together in a class by themselves, and are gradually promoted to branches of useful work. The clothes are sold at prime cost to the parents of the children, or to those ladies and gentlemen who give them away to the poor.

"*Straw Platting.*—This work appears to have been partially introduced into many schools; and from the

ease with which the art of platting is learnt, it seems to be particularly suitable both for boys and girls, where the nature of the country is such as to furnish a supply of good straw at a low price. In the platting districts (chiefly comprising Beds, Bucks, Herts, and Essex,) 2*d.* a pound is given for the straw in the rough, but a much higher price is paid for it in other parts." —(Here follows a good deal of useful information respecting the best way of teaching the art, the cost of tools, &c. Such information appears under most of the other heads.)

" *Rush Platting, for Mats, Baskets, &c.*—This work appears calculated for children in schools, being of a clean and healthy nature, easily learnt, and at small expense. The only instruments used in the work are a knife, a large pair of scissars, and a thick coarse kind of packing needle, with an eye sufficiently large to take in a wattle, which serves for the thread. —The increased comfort given to a cottage by a mat at the doors,—the convenience of the little covered baskets for marketing, and of the larger ones for carrying tools,—the want, also, of hassocks, or some other convenience for kneeling in most of our country churches, &c. might perhaps recommend this branch of industry to notice.

" *Gardening, Agriculture, &c.* — Report of the National School, Thames Ditton: — Two intelligent boys were first instructed in gardening, and afterwards others of the first and second classes placed under their care, but not more than four, including the monitor, work in the garden at the same time. The ground being foul, at first potatoes only were grown; but peas, beans, potatoes, and turnips are now being cultivated

in succession. The produce meets with a ready sale, and it is proposed to reward the labourers with clothing from part of the profits. The ground at present consists of 40 poles; and the total expense of tools, including four spades, four hoes, two rakes, two potatoe-forks, a reel and line, with a wheelbarrow, has amounted to 2*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.* The cost of seeds for one year, to produce two crops in the year, is calculated at 1*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.* One-tenth is added for the wear and tear of tools every year, and a trifle for manure, which a few of the boys are allowed to collect in the wheelbarrow from the roads, receiving a small reward. — A higher kind of gardening, including the cultivation of flowers, fruits, and greenhouse plants, appears to have been tried in connexion with the excellent National school at Bath, a few years since; but the expenses of the undertaking, and other causes, prevented its success.

"No report has been received of agricultural works carried on in connexion with National schools, although some direct attempts of the kind are being made. But various agricultural schools have been established in Ireland, several of which, although attended with much expense, have conferred important benefits on the community."

DAY SCHOOLS CONDUCTED ON THE PLANS OF BELL AND LANCASTER.

These schools must be considered as forming the chief medium of direct education in this country. They are far outnumbered, it is true, by Sunday schools; and as regards the nature of the education

afforded, they must yield to very many private schools. But taking numbers of scholars and amount of instruction both into consideration, we are inclined to think that the schools in question are the most efficient.

There has been some angry contention between the supporters of Dr. Bell and Mr. Lancaster, as to which is entitled to the chief merit of the plans known in connexion with their names; and which, however they may differ in details, are in their great features the same. This dispute probably owed most of its bitterness to the circumstance of one of these gentlemen being a member of the Established Church, and the other a Dissenter; the respective parties considering their own honour implicated to a certain extent in the question. The dispute, however, like most others of the same kind, has at length died away; the majority on both sides having found out that it is folly to allow differences in religious opinions to excite feelings of hostility, and that the honest and well-meaning of every religious faith have one common interest, and ought for their own sakes to unite in one common cause.

We believe Mr. Lancaster himself has declared that he is indebted to Dr. Bell for the plan of teaching by monitors; and this, it must be admitted, is the chief characteristic of the system in question. In helping to devise means for the successful application of the plan of monitorial teaching, and in assisting to call public attention to the system generally, Mr. Lancaster, has, we are sure, much merit; and this is now generally acknowledged.

Dr. Bell's first experiments on the monitorial system were tried at Madras in the year 1789, and

eight years afterwards he published the results of them in this country. Public attention being soon attracted to the subject, in a great measure through the exertions of Mr. Lancaster, a society was formed in the year 1805 for carrying the plans as modified by Mr. Lancaster into general operation. This society eventually took the name of the "British and Foreign School Society." Six years after its formation, another society was established with a similar object. This latter corporation took the name of the "National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor on the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales." The latter part of this title, however, seems to be inconsistent with the first, for how can a society be properly termed "national," which avowedly excludes nearly half the *nation* from its benefits? We say *excludes*, for we cannot suppose that any who seriously desire to forward the cause of sound education would wish to offer instruction as a bonus for the abandonment of those principles of truth and honesty which it is surely one great object of education to foster.

The British and Foreign School Society is founded on the principle of perfect equality among all sects of Christians, the religious instruction being confined to points in which all are agreed. We believe, indeed, that the conscientious Jew may also send his child to the schools of the society, as the boy is not required to join the classes in reading the New Testament, or in other exercises that would be offensive to his parent. Such at least is said to be the practice at the Central School in the Borough Road.

In the following extracts we give the terms on

which schools are admitted into union with each of the two societies, as laid down by their respective secretaries in their evidence before the Education Committee of the House of Commons:

"BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

"If any party or parties in any given town wish to establish a school in connexion with the British and Foreign School Society, and communicate to that effect, the committee generally will aid them by a grant of school materials, by training for them a teacher, and sometimes by a small donation; the only condition enjoined being, that they shall adopt the great leading principle of the society, viz. that the school shall be open on equal terms to all religious denominations, and that no catechisms or creed shall be introduced. Those are the only terms required."

Education Report, page 16.

"NATIONAL SOCIETY. — FORM OF APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION TO UNION.

"In these schools the National system of teaching will be adopted as far as is practicable. The children will be instructed in the Liturgy and Catechism of the Established Church, and constantly attend divine service at their parish church, or other place of worship under the establishment, unless such reasons be assigned for their non-attendance as are satisfactory to the persons having the direction of the schools. No religious tracts will be used in the schools, but such as are contained in the catalogue of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. Annual or other communications on their state and progress will be

made, as required by the practice of the National Society."—*Education Report, page* 59.

An ample guarantee against any underhand scheme of proselytism in the British and Foreign School Society is to be found in the mixed character of the directing committee; where several members of the Established Church (one of them a clergyman) are associated with gentlemen belonging to different denominations of Dissenters. The same diversity is observable among the young men who attend the classes with a view to becoming schoolmasters. Churchmen, Quakers, Baptists, Independents, are to be found pursuing the same studies, and mingling together in perfect harmony. With such rules and under such direction it need scarcely be added, that the establishments by the British and Foreign School Society are in point of fact attended by children belonging to every variety of religious sect. Of the children in the model-school, Borough Road, it is observed that about one half belong to the Established Church.

Notwithstanding that the reading-lessons are taken exclusively from the Scriptures, and that the children are encouraged to ask for explanation whenever they do not fully comprehend the meaning of a word or phrase, and are afterwards questioned upon the same, there has been no complaint at the Borough Road School, even in a single instance, of a child being taught peculiar religious doctrines: and this fact is the more striking, when we consider that, in addition to any exception which might be taken by the parents, the school is open to the criticisms of a constant succession of visiters, including of course many members of the Establishment, and not a few clergymen, all of whom

are at full liberty to inspect the proceedings of the classes and examine the children.*

Whenever a child puts a question on a controverted point, (which however rarely happens,) he is told that his question relates to a subject on which Christians are not agreed; and that he must apply to his own parents, or the minister of the congregation to which they belong.

There cannot, as appears to us, be any rational objection to this mode of proceeding. Here all is taught on which Christians in general are agreed, and the rest is not excluded, as has sometimes been erroneously imagined, but simply not provided for; its inculcation being left either to the parents or the ministers of religion. As for making it a *sine qud non* that children should profess opinions which they cannot possibly have formed for themselves, and which must in many instances differ very widely from those they have imbibed from their parents, we confess this does not appear to us the way to inculcate sound religious principles, or to promote habits of truth. We are not then satisfied with the explanation of the secretary of the National Society, that "many Dissenters send their children with a feeling that the influence of the parent at home will counteract anything that is done at school." — This explanation would be less unsatisfactory if the proceedings at school extend-

* Since writing the above, we have observed, in perusing the evidence given before the Educational Committee of the House of Commons, that some exception is taken to the proceedings of the Borough Road School by the Rev. S. Wood, secretary to the Lancasterian School in Harp-alley. We believe, however, that this is a solitary instance.

ed only to instruction on the part of the master, and did not involve any professions on the part of the pupil; though even then we should say that the debatable ground would be much better avoided; for it is a bad system where the parent and teacher are pulling in opposite directions; between them we should apprehend that the child's ideas must be greatly confused, and his respect for both parent and teacher somewhat lowered.

But much more serious is the evil we have pointed out; an evil which must exist in all those cases where the child is receiving one set of opinions at home and *professing* another at school. According to the Rev. Mr. Wigram's evidence, there is a very large class of persons to whom the religious dogmas inculcated in the National schools are no obstacle to their sending their children, inasmuch as these persons are quite indifferent on such matters. We cannot agree in the accuracy of these statements, at least to the extent laid down by Mr. Wigram; and we must also protest against the inference that it is not objectionable to withhold education from such children except on the condition of their repeating certain articles of faith. For as indifference not unfrequently generates contempt, is it not to be feared that the lessons of the teacher by day may become the subject of ridicule by the parent in the evening?

We quote the evidence referred to, and for which we confess we were not prepared:

"Do the children of Roman Catholics and Dissenters actually attend the worship of the Established

Church? — Generally they have no objection: their great object is to get learning, as they call it, for their children, — and very few of them look for any distinct religious impression upon the mind of the child.

* * * * * *

"Would it not be quite impossible, in your view, to meet the Socinian upon that subject, [the principle on which acts of duty are to be performed,] inasmuch as you would teach that the grace of God is necessary to enable a man to perform any such act?— That is what I feel; that if the Socinian were disposed to enter into the subject, that would be a stumbling-block which he could not get over; but, as I said before, the working classes for the most part bring their children to us, because they think they will get good instruction, and they will get on in the world. There are persons in that class of society who are as religious, and as religious on principle, as in any class; but the generality of them, like their superiors in the world, do not think much about the doctrines of religion."

Education Report, page 64.

For our part, we feel no doubt that a very large class of the English people would be deterred from sending their children to schools in which peculiar religious opinions are to be inculcated; and Mr. Wigram, in another part of his evidence, appears to come to the same conclusion, as regards the Baptists at least:

"With reference to other classes of Dissenters, particularly that large and respectable class called the Baptists, are the Committee right in supposing

that your principal difficulty in comprehending them would arise out of your views of the sacrament of baptism?—They are numerous in some parts of the country, but I have seldom met with them; and I never thought of the subject with reference to Baptists."

"Would not their opinion upon the point of adult baptism form a great hindrance to the reception of their children? — I should suppose it would, in their minds."—*Education Report, page* 65.

The sectarian spirit which unfortunately influences the acts of the National Society does not appear ever to have been met by retaliation on the part of the British and Foreign School Society. This latter body has acted on the wise and liberal policy of a nation which throws open its ports to foreign produce, however rigidly its own manufactures may be excluded. The following appears in the evidence of Mr. Dunn, the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society:

"Have you had any applications from particular sects for teachers?— We have; but in every case refused them, if the schools are to be conducted on sectarian principles."

"When particular sects have applied, have they asked for a preference? — Yes, we have had applications of that kind. The application has come in this form: 'We are a certain congregation, in a particular town or village; a National school has just been established from which we are excluded; we want now a school in connexion with our chapel, which will also be our own.' We have invariably replied to such communications, that while we regret their circum-

stances, we will never sanction any school which is not freely and fully open to all parties; nothing sectarian or exclusive being introduced. On that point the committee are exceedingly firm."

Education Report, page 29.

Dismissing the subject of religious distinctions, we proceed to other matters connected with the two societies.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN.

British Schools. — The total number of children is estimated at between 60,000 and 80,000. This estimate, however, (as the secretary of the society is careful to state,) cannot be relied upon; there being but little certain information on the subject. The number of children in London is stated to be 12,300, as ascertained by the inspector employed by the society; who, during the course of the last year, visited every school in the metropolis, and reported on each separately. The population of London at the last census (1831) was 1,500,000, or about one-ninth part of the entire population of England and Wales. Hence, if the British schools in the country generally bore a ratio to the population equal to what they do in London, the total number of children in them would be about 110,000. There is, however, little doubt that the towns are much better provided with schools than the rural districts; and thus the secretary's estimate is probably not below the true number.

National Schools.—In the Reports of the society, the number of children is stated to be about 500,000;

but, as we have seen, this number is probably much over-estimated. The number in London, as given in detail in the society's Report for 1833, is 19,100. Assuming this number to be correct, and taking the population of London as a basis of calculation, the result would be 172,000 for the whole of England and Wales. The deficiency in the rural districts is probably less as respects National schools, than British schools. However, without making any allowance for deficiency, the total as thus estimated falls far short of that laid down in the Reports of the society.

RELATIVE PROPORTION OF THE SEXES IN THE NATIONAL AND BRITISH AND FOREIGN SCHOOLS.

British Schools.—Not known for the country at large. In London the number of girls is less than one half that of the boys; there being only 3,800 girls to 8,500 boys.

National Schools.—According to the report for London, the girls are to the boys in the proportion of two to three; but according to the report for the country at large, the proportion is five boys to six girls.

ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL.

The average attendance at a considerable number of schools is mentioned in the Reports of the two societies. The total number of scholars on the lists in these schools is 11,700, and the average total number in attendance 8,850; which gives a proportion of three to four. The care, however, which would

insure a record of the attendance, and a transmission of the record to the parent society, would be likely to produce unusual attention to the subject generally; and hence the specimens given are probably too favourable. Most of the schools, too, the attendance of which is reported, are in towns; where the children are likely to be more regular in going to school than in the country. At Mr. Allen's school, at Lindfield, as we have seen, not more on an average than one half of the children attend; and from the many unusual attractions which that school possesses, we may expect that the attendance there is more regular than at most other country schools.

AGE AT WHICH CHILDREN USUALLY ENTER THE SCHOOLS.

Probably eight or nine. At the Borough Road School it varies from six to twelve.

Education Report, page 20.

AGE AT LEAVING SCHOOL.

The children at the National Society's model-school, Westminster, leave at the average age of eleven years, (*Education Report, page* 61.) This is probably about the general average.

TIME AT SCHOOL.

Not ascertained with any degree of certainty. At the Borough Road School the children remain about

a year on an average. (*Education Report, page* 19.) At the National school, Westminster, the average time is stated to be about three years. Many children, however, go to two or three schools in succession. We have in a former place assumed that the average length of a child's day-school education is about two years: and this is the nearest estimate we can make.

USUAL STATE OF THE CHILDREN IN MORALS AND KNOWLEDGE WHEN THEY ENTER THE SCHOOLS.

Not known.

NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE EDUCATION WHICH IS PROFESSEDLY GIVEN.

British Schools.—Reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, and a competent knowledge of the Scriptures.

National Schools.— Reading, writing, (generally), the elements of arithmetic, a competent knowledge of the Scriptures, and the Church Catechism.—(*Education Report—Mr. Dunn's and Mr. Wigram's evidence.*)

In some of the British schools the education extends to geography, and in a few to the elements of geometry, including the measurement of land. The following are among the schools thus distinguished:— the model-school in the Borough Road; the school in Harp Alley, Farringdon Street; and the schools at Devonport and Trowbridge. In some of the National schools, (as we have mentioned,) a valuable and important improvement has been effected by the introduction of various branches of manual labour.

SCHOOL-HOURS.

Generally from six to eight hours daily, with a holiday of either the half or the whole of Saturday.

PLANS OF TEACHING.

The monitorial system introduced by Dr. Bell is common to the schools of both societies. The British schools have adopted Mr. Lancaster's modifications; the National schools have abided by Dr. Bell's plans. In many of the British schools a great improvement has been introduced during the last three or four years, with a view of rendering the exercises more intellectual, and of imparting general knowledge. We cannot do better than quote Mr. Dunn's own words on this head:

"In what way do you endeavour to improve the general frame and capacity of their minds?—By inquiring the meaning of every word they read, of every word they write, and of everything they do. We never allow them to do anything without asking them how they do it, and why they do it. We avail ourselves fully of the principle of interrogation."

Education Report, page 21.

In the National schools this improvement has not yet been introduced; and the consequence is a comparative dulness and lethargy in their classes, excepting always the schools which have adopted the excellent plan of mixing manual labour with ordinary school studies. How, indeed, is it possible for a poor child to keep up its attention, when its sole employment is

to dole out a few sentences as the slow turn goes round, and these containing many words to which he can attach no meaning, written in a style above his comprehension, and often relating to subjects in which he has not yet learned to feel an interest? Yet this is what is expected; and many a hearty cuff is given to the poor fellow whose attention is found wandering.—When will a knowledge of human nature be deemed an essential qualification of a teacher? In other words, when will he whose business it is to mould minds and dispositions be expected to have some acquaintance with the materials he has to deal with?

We rejoice, however, to see the amendment that has taken place in the British schools. We hope the good effect produced will lead to further improvements, and that the National Society will join in a friendly course of amelioration, each gladly adopting whatever of good may spring from the other.

In his evidence before the Education Committee, Professor Pillans speaks thus of the plans pursued by the two Societies:

"I conceive that the great defect in the system which the Church has patronized particularly hitherto, lies in the extremely limited nature of the information communicated, and the object being almost entirely confined to making members of the Church of England, and inculcating a blind submission to her, instead of imparting, along with religious instruction, that general information and intelligence which alone can make a school ultimately valuable to an individual who is to be in the lower walk of life. So narrow and un-

attractive is the instruction given in the schools which call themselves by a misnomer National, that I think it by no means unlikely that a considerable portion of the pupils, ten years after quitting them, will be found to have lost the power of reading. So little are their minds imbued with the love of books or of knowledge by the school business, that they have little temptation in the ordinary circumstances of a life of labour, to keep up the acquirement. I conceive that by far the most important point to be considered in a national system of education, is the course of instruction that ought to be followed; and that as long as the books perused and the instructions delivered are of an exclusively religious cast, it is vain to expect that school-training will contribute materially to form a moral, religious, and intelligent population."

* * * * * *

"What should you say with respect to the Lancasterian schools: do you think they are equally deficient with National schools?—I should say that the Lancasterian schools are greatly superior, as far as my observation has gone; and with regard to those in London, I think there can be no doubt about the superiority, considered in that point of view: there is much more play given to the faculties; there is more spirit in the instruction, and a vastly greater fund of knowledge acquired.

"Do you consider that the instruction given at the Borough Road School is quite equal, if not superior, to what is given at Mr. Wood's Sessional School at Edinburgh?—I would not say superior, I think it is much of the same description."—*Education Report, pp.* 40–42.

ACQUIREMENTS REALLY MADE BY THE CHILDREN.

There is a great want of trustworthy information on this head. We shall presently see what is reported respecting the acquirements made in the Borough Road School and in the National school at Westminster; these, however, are avowedly model-schools, and it is probable the attainments there made are much above the average. Speaking of the schools generally, we cannot hope that more is acquired than an imperfect power of reading, (not sufficient in many cases to enable a child to read with pleasure to itself,) a yet more imperfect power of writing, and an acquaintance with the first three or four rules in arithmetic. In the schools in country parishes especially, the knowledge obtained is, we fear, exceedingly scanty. The Bishop of London, in his evidence before the Education Committee, says that few children in country schools do more than acquire the power of reading a chapter in the Gospels with tolerable correctness.

GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE OF THE SHCOOLS.

When we compare the actual state of things in these schools with what we know to be practicable, we are struck with the fact that great improvements have yet to be made; but when we call to mind what we have seen and heard of the state of things in the lower class of schools twenty or thirty years ago,—nay what is still found in many schools of higher pretensions, both public and private, even at the present day —we immediately become sensible that, comparatively

speaking, these humble scholars have indeed their lines in pleasant places. True, authority is not as yet always backed by reason; still less does reason always precede the exercise of authority. Too often are blows and harsh words resorted to, where gentler punishment or perhaps even admonition would produce the desired effect. We have no hesitation in saying, that where the means exist of putting the refractory into solitude, the master who cannot govern his pupils without rating and striking them may rest assured that he has undertaken a task for which he is not qualified. Still, we are aware that the limited funds of the societies must in many instances render it impossible on the one hand to erect the necessary buildings for this mode of punishment, and on the other to offer such salaries as will secure the services of men of talent, and induce them to go through the course of training, mental and moral, which is of capital importance to every one who seeks to be a teacher.

There are, we trust, few schools among those connected either with the British and Foreign School Society, or the National School Society, in which flogging in its most revolting form is in use. On the other hand, we fear that there are very few indeed from which corporal punishment is wholly excluded. Certainly this desirable end has not been attained at the model school in Westminster; and even at that in the Borough Road there is still to be found some little of the old leaven. At the former school, even the monitors are allowed to feed their bad passions by striking their companions.

Many advantages would be found in having the

laws of a school written down and explained periodically to the boys, the reasons of each law being fully gone into. The code of laws would be found an excellent text-book for moral instruction, and moreover it would act as a great and safe check on those in whose hands power is placed. At present a master is often engaged at the same moment in the twofold occupation of lawgiver and executioner. An incidental advantage which most schoolmasters, and state masters also, would find in Bentham's plan of assigning the reason of every law, would consist in this:—the statute-book would be shortened by the erasure of many laws for whose continuance no reason could be assigned.

Still, while we point to the improvements which the comfort of the children, and yet more their moral and mental welfare, so strongly demand, let us never cease to look back with grateful acknowledgment on the happy change which has been already effected. The arrangements by which a sufficient corps of subordinate teachers is raised among the pupils,—thus relieving the master from the care of order in the detail, and at the same time keeping the pupils in comparatively regular occupation,—these arrangements keep out of existence a thousand breaches of propriety, which in former times fretted the master beyond endurance, and drove him, in all such cases as were followed by detection, to visit the unfortunate offenders with merciless severity. That our readers may the better estimate the value of what has been done, we extract from Professor Pillans's admirable little work on the Principles of Elementary Teaching a passage illustrative of the state of things in former

times, and which, though it is intended as a description of Scotch schools, will, we are sure, be at once acknowledged by our readers as no less accurately describing the rude proceedings found thirty or forty years ago in many schools on this side the Tweed.

"Few situations occur in human life where order and method are more indispensable than in a school of this description. There are probably three or four classes of English reading, as many stages of arithmetic, as many of penmanship, a class or two perhaps of Latin, and occasionally classes or individuals learning some branch of the mathematics. Amidst such a distracting diversity of occupations, if the teacher has no method, the school must unavoidably fall into disorder, and the insubordination that would as certainly follow can only be kept down by a very free and frequent use of the lash. Suppose one class on the floor saying to the master; another has finished the tasks prescribed, and having nobody to say it to, abandons itself to strenuous idleness; pupils come from various classes to inquire a word they cannot make out, to complain of a neighbour, to crave leave out, to ask what they are to do next, to show a copy or an account cast, or to beg a new sum to work. In such a scene of confusion worse confounded, we need not wonder that the child's progress should be slow and small; the wonder is rather that he should succeed in learning anything."

Those who have the merit of introducing, perfecting, establishing, and supporting the plans which have rendered this accurate picture of what *was* a very imperfect portrait of what *is*, may justly lay claim to the gratitude of all schoolboys and all schoolboys' friends.

HABITS OF THE CHILDREN, AND STATE OF MORALS AMONG THEM.

Very little is known on this head.

COST OF THEIR EDUCATION,
(Including rent, taxes, salaries, and expenses of every kind.)

About one pound per annum for each scholar.

FUNDS, HOW RAISED.

Partly by voluntary subscriptions, partly by payments from the parents, and, in some of the schools (principally those for girls,) partly by the produce o the children's labour. The payment by the paren varies from a penny to three pence or four pence pe week; and allowing for schools altogether free, th average is about three halfpence. Deducting for non payment in the holidays, this sum is equal to about si shillings per annum. Hence, on an average, abou one-third part of the expense of a child's educatio in a British or a National school is defrayed by th parent.

EFFECTS OF THE EDUCATION GIVEN IN THE BRITISH AND NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

We have already spoken of the great difficulty procuring authentic information on this head in th absence of any general system of organization. Th blame of this paucity of incontrovertible fact do not, however, lie with the friends of education: the

would have the statistical department of government put into such an efficient condition, that not only should the real effect of education generally on the habits and welfare of the people be made fully manifest, but the operation of any particular plan in extensive use should be determined with at least tolerable accuracy. The true friends of education have no fear of the result of a full examination into its effects: on the contrary, they are satisfied that such an examination would, in its consequences, do more to forward their cause than anything else that could be devised. They look upon education, however, as a means, and not an end; and should they become convinced that the end they have in view is not to be obtained by this means,—that to develop the powers with which a child has been gifted by its Creator, to foster its best feelings, to present it with objects of interest and rational pleasure, and to create in it a love for useful employment, —to trace before it, link by link, the chain by which vice and misery are inseparably connected, — in a word, to make it feel that to be virtuous is but to be wise;—should they be satisfied that to do this is not to promote the cause of virtue, the welfare of the individual, and the happiness of society, then would the friends of education wish to abandon their present pursuit, and engage in some other plan of benefiting their fellow-creatures.

The evidence, however, which, even with our present imperfect means, has been collected respecting the effects of education, is too powerful to be resisted. We have already brought forward some strong facts, and we shall have opportunity of bringing forward many more.

As regards the efficacy of the particular plans in use in the British schools and the National schools, we must depend, to a considerable extent, on the Reports of the two societies. We have already noticed the admirable results of the school in Gower's Walk, (which is in connexion with the National Society,) as ascertained by personal examination; and we shall presently show that the British school in the Borough Road, so far as the subsequent course of the children can be traced, has proved very successful as a preventive of crime, and a means of raising useful and worthy members of society.

The following are the extracts from the Reports of the two societies:—

BRITISH SCHOOLS.

Harp Alley.—"It is gratifying to observe that the efforts which have thus been made to improve the boys have been eminently successful. They are evidently interested in their studies, and attached to the institution; a pleasing proof of which is afforded by the circumstance that many of the monitors, after having been engaged for six hours during the day in the regular business of the school, attend in the evening a class which is taught by the master on his own account in the same room; thus evincing a most laudable desire to take advantage of every opportunity of acquiring useful knowledge before they are placed out in the world.

"Another circumstance to which the committee have much pleasure in adverting, is the very neat and clean appearance of the boys, especially at the annual

examination; a circumstance so striking, that several strangers have exclaimed on seeing them, 'These are not children of the poor!' The committee have no hesitation in affirming that, with few exceptions, the boys are actually the children of parents in the humbler walks of life. They are delighted to witness the efforts which are made by these persons to rise above the evils of their condition; they regard this improvement in dress and general appearance as one of the most incontestable proofs that the education which is given at Harp Alley School is producing its proper effects; and they rejoice to think that their exertions are thus instrumental in hastening the arrival of that happy period when the diffusion of knowledge shall become universal, and when ignorance and misery shall no longer be regarded as the almost inseparable attendants of poverty."

Report for 1834, p. 45.

Lynn School.—"At the annual meeting of the committee of this school, held at the Guildhall, on the 8th of February, a selection of boys attended for the purpose of exhibiting specimens of penmanship, and to be exercised in mental recreations, customary on such occasions. The committee felt warranted to state, from the excellency of the system under which the school is managed, that the education imparted to the pupils is of a character truly practicable for common life; and they are fully borne out in this assertion by the desire of tradesmen to be furnished with boys for their service from this school in preference to others found elsewhere.

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"The friends of education in this town feel fully convinced that the moral condition of the inhabitants is abundantly promoted by such a useful auxiliary among the poorer classes of society; for, recurring to the grand test of experience, it will be found that in proportion to the dissemination of religious instruction, there has been a visible diminution of wickedness and crime. Contrasting the moral state of the population with that which existed twenty-five years ago, when the school in question was organized, there is every encouragement for continued and increased exertion on the part of those who have the best interests of the rising generation at heart."

Report for 1833, p. 66

NATIONAL SCHOOLS.

Lincolnshire Society.—"The general character of our old scholars is very good. Many could be named who are holding excellent situations. Three or four of the oldest pupils (who never had any other instruction but from the National school) have held situations in attorneys' offices seventeen years; one in a merchant's the same time; a great many others ten or twelve years; and a great many good servants of all descriptions. In fact, we know not of more than two or three (who have attended regularly for two or three years) but what are very creditable to us during the last twenty years; and we have more application for children to go into places than we can supply."

Report for 1834, p. 70

Western Sussex Society.—"The result of inquiries respecting boys admitted into the Sussex Central School, from 1812 to 1826, is as follows:—

Present Employment of the Old Scholars.

Schoolmasters	4
Masters in Trade	29
Clerks, &c.	17
Mechanics, Labourers, or Servants	282
Soldiers and Sailors	35
Emigrated	14
Guilty of Crime	*7
Dead	40
Unknown	202
Total	630
Characters selected as good	271
..... middling	59
..... not good	54
Removed or unknown	246
	630

"The greater part of the girls go to place in families in the city and neighbourhood, and bear very good characters, and continue in their situations for a length of time. The children are in great demand as servants, so that the first class is constantly being spoilt by the numbers who leave it for situations."

Report for 1834, p. 68.

MODEL SCHOOLS AND TRAINING ESTABLISHMENT.

Each society has its model school, and establishment for training teachers; the two being in each case united. The model school and training esta-

* Four of these belong to families who are notoriously bad.

blishment of the British and Foreign School Society is in the Borough Road, Southwark; that of the National Society is in the Sanctuary, Westminster. This latter society has also several model schools and training establishments on a smaller scale in different parts of the country.

The training establishments are, as we have remarked, in a very imperfect state; affording only a few months' instruction; and that to young men who in many instances have a very scanty stock of knowledge to start with, and who for several years have been engaged in occupations altogether unconnected with the business of education. Everything, however, is comparative; and in the absence of any other public provision for preparing teachers for popular elementary schools, these training establishments are very valuable, and reflect great credit on those who founded them.

We have lately visited the principal model schools of each society, and the following is the result of our observations:—

Borough Road School.—This school appears to be very ably conducted, so far as the limited means in use will allow. Our first glance round the room gave us a favourable impression. The general appearance of life and cheerfulness among the scholars; the intelligence and vivacity of the monitors; and the ardour, talent, and good-temper which were depicted in the countenance of the master, satisfied us that there must be much that was excellent in the working of the school.

The room in which the boys are taught is exceedingly spacious and lofty; so that even when the

whole school is assembled (to the number of 500), there is no feeling of closeness or impurity in the air. The girls, of whom there are about 300, are taught in a separate room. When we entered the boys' school-room, most of the classes were occupied in reading; and we were much pleased with the care that was taken to see that the children understood every word they uttered. Indeed, it appeared to us, that if there were any fault, it lay in carrying the system of questioning too far; for the exercise was often persisted in until the original object was quite lost sight of. Thus, the word *parable* gave rise to the following questions:

What is a parable?
Name one.
Who spake the first parable?
Who was Jotham?
&c. &c.

Now it is evident that the two first questions only had anything to do with the signification of the word under consideration. Again, the word *silver* led to a series of questions and answers, running on, as nearly as we can recollect, as follows:

What is the colour of silver?—White.
What is made of silver?—Shillings and sixpences.
What other metal is used to make money with?—Copper and gold.
Where does silver come from?—South America.*
What also comes from South America?—Sugar and coffee.

* When no member of the class can answer the question, the information is supplied by the monitor or teacher.

What is the plant called from which sugar obtained?—The sugar-cane.

Who discovered America?—Columbus.

&c. &c.

Now we at once admit, that it is far better that su information as this should be communicated in a sultory manner than not at all: but it appears to that it would be a considerable improvement to g connected and systematic instruction in differ branches of knowledge, and confine the business explanation to its direct object. A rambling kind teaching, while it fixes but comparatively little in mind, has a tendency to create mental fickleness pernicious failing. Anything, however, is better t the old, tiresome, and stultifying plan of reading without regard to the meaning of what is be uttered.

After we had heard several of the classes read un the monitors, the monitors themselves were forn into a class for reading. The book was the New T tament, and we were invited to select a chapter. were much struck with the feeling, the attention emphasis and inflection, and the general propri with which the boys read. We have in fact seld heard better reading from children of any rank of l and, whether regarded as a distinct accomplishm or as an index of mental cultivation, the exercise flected great credit on the children and their instr tors. We afterwards examined a class of monitors mental arithmetic, and in the elements of pract geometry; and we found the boys very expert in t powers of calculation and possessing clear concepti

of the nature and properties of many geometrical figures.

While we were engaged in these examinations, the general classes had formed at the desks for writing. The boys write on slates, and (excepting those just beginning) from the dictation of the monitors. As the writing goes forward, the monitors keep passing to and fro, to point out errors in the spelling, faults in the writing, &c.; the master superintending the whole, as usual. We looked over the slates of many of the boys, and were pleased with the neatness of the writing and the general correctness of the spelling,

The drudgery of repeating the multiplication-table is got over here, as in infant schools, by setting the table to music. At a given signal, one of the monitors led off to the tune of "*Sound the loud timbrel o'er Egypt's dark sea.*" We were much amused at hearing the quiet and unassuming facts of the multiplication-table come forth in such animating and heart-stirring periods. We suppose the little fellow reserved this air for state occasions, for all the other airs were of a much more homely kind. The children sang in good tune and good time; but as they did not take different parts, the pleasing effect of harmony was wanting.

In a school where economy is necessarily an important object, and where the children remain for so short a time as thirteen months only on an average, the course of instruction cannot but be very limited, though in the present instance the actual progress is greater than a consideration of these obstacles would have allowed us to expect. We made particular inquiries as to what acquirements the children did in fact make; and

the information we received agrees with that given by Mr. Dunn to the Education Committee, which therefore we extract:—

"What amount of knowledge do those who are best educated possess when they leave your school?—Those who remain in the school for twelve months will learn to read well; but those remaining for three or four years will both read and write well, and perform any sum in the common books of arithmetic; they acquire also a considerable knowledge of geography, can draw maps, and are made acquainted with the elements of geometry. Their general intelligence, judging from the opinions expressed by visiters, is equal to that of any boys of their age."

"You are speaking of those children that remain for three years?—Yes; but these are a very small number. With regard to children remaining one year, I should say that they read well, write fairly, and have a tolerable knowledge of the first four rules of arithmetic. This is, however, about the average of the whole."

"Could they write from dictation?—They invariably write from dictation; we but rarely use copies in the school."

"And could do that correctly?—When I say fairly, I speak of what we call fair writing for a labouring man."

"It is not that facility which gentlemen acquire?—No."

"It is in fact a laborious effort?—Yes; and I would not say that they all read with such ease as to ensure the fact of their never forgetting it, and reading being a pleasure to them. Without they are able to do this,

we consider that they learn very little. Those who are three years with us will read well, and so far understand what they read, that any book placed before them they will enjoy. They will write as good a hand as many boys leaving boarding-schools in London."

"In arithmetic, how far will they have advanced?—Through any school arithmetic."

"And become masters of vulgar fractions?—Completely so. We have a few boys in the school (as indeed might be expected out of 500 boys properly taught) who are almost prodigies in arithmetic."

"Besides the reading, writing, and ordinary arithmetic, how much of other knowledge do they acquire; such, for example, as geometry?—There is, of course, very great difference in the capacity of boys; and in mentioning three years, I do not wish to be understood as asserting that this time is sufficient for every child's education. I give it as the shortest time in which a competent education can be imparted by efficient teachers. Generally speaking, teachers are not so efficient, and will require longer time. I speak of a boy of average capacity, who has been under a competent teacher; this boy in that time will learn reading, writing, and arithmetic, geography, and the elements of geometry."

In addition to the foregoing acquirements, must be remembered the effect of the education (limited as it is) in awakening the mental powers, in attracting the boy to useful and innocent pursuits, in instilling sound principles, and in improving his general habits. These advantages, indeed, are among the most important which education can dispense.

The usual punishment consists of detention out of school hours; *tasks* are never imposed, and by the rules of the school the infliction of corporal punishment in any and every form is strictly forbidden. Still, the account of our visit would not be strictly correct if we did not mention that we observed some of the young men who were in process of training for teachers strike the boys occasionally on the back of the hand. Corporal punishment, even in its mildest form, is objectionable; among other reasons, because it necessarily weakens the influence of the teacher on the mind and feelings of his pupil. In justice to the master, however, it must be recollected that the young men who are in training for teachers remain in the school too short a time to undergo any considerable change in their habits. Many of them, probably, have been in ill-regulated schools, and become accustomed to the barbarous but easy means of producing a temporary effect which the rod affords; and they are likely to continue the practice, unless they are incessantly watched. The interests of the school are in a measure compromised by the admission of these young men; for the boy-monitors, whom they displace to a certain extent, are much more successful teachers.

Another punishment which we found in use, and to which we strongly object, is that of public shame. The boy whom we observed suffering under its infliction had been guilty of riotous behaviour during lesson-time. His punishment was twofold; and it is to the latter part only that our present objection applies. The first part consisted in a dismissal from his class, backed by a permanent prohibition against his resuming in any other class the pursuit which had been in-

terrupted by his misconduct,—namely, geography. This punishment, especially the expulsion from the class, arose naturally from the offence, and tended to place the acquisition of knowledge in its true light before the culprit and the school at large. It was assumed that knowledge is a thing to be prized, and that to withhold it is a punishment; whereas the too general practice of instructors is to treat knowledge as a drug, of which an extra quantity is to be forced upon any child who shall misconduct himself. There is nothing which might not be rendered disgusting by such a plan of proceeding. If the very sweetmeats of which children are so fond were pressed upon them at all times, without regard to inclination or appetite, desire would soon give place to loathing,

Thus far, then, the kind of punishment to which the boy was subjected (for we say nothing of the degree) was, in our opinion, judicious. But he was further ordered to sit for a number of days in a conspicuous place during school-time, an object of public disgrace. In the propriety of this we cannot concur. In truth, the subjecting of boys to shame has many of the objections which apply to corporal punishment. It is, in the first place, glaringly artificial; and without now considering the general propriety of artificial punishments, we presume every one must admit that it is difficult to explain their reasonableness. Thus the culprit is likely to think himself harshly treated; and, what is still worse, there is great danger of public sympathy being on his side. Again, public shame is a very unequal punishment. To the boy of keen sensibility it is very painful; to the one of dull feeling it is a mere bagatelle. And, in the last place, this punish-

ment throws a boy into a position in which he is strongly tempted to put a bold face on the matter,—to affect, and as far as he can to feel, contempt for the school, its teachers, and its laws.

We have however dwelt enough on the punishments in use in the Borough Road School: indeed, punishment in any form appears to be employed but to a very moderate extent, and by no means to constitute a striking feature of the system pursued. The artificial rewards consist in the distribution of little tickets which have a certain value attached to them; the principal natural reward is promotion to the office of monitor, a post of great ambition. The necessity both of rewards and punishments is much reduced by the extent to which the exercises of the school are rendered interesting and agreeable. The admixture of useful and productive labour would, we are satisfied, render them still more attractive; and another advantage would arise, inasmuch as the parents would in all probability keep their children much longer in the school. In Gower's Walk, where printing is taught, the children stay on an average *three years;* whereas at the Borough Road School, the average time does not exceed *thirteen months.*

A charge of two pence per week is made for each child attending the school. These pence amounted last year to 234*l.* which is within a trifle of the current expense of the schools, exclusive of rent and taxes, which may be estimated at between 200*l.* and 300*l.* The total expense, therefore, may be put down at about 500*l.* a year. The number of children on the books is about 800, and the average attendance, as calculated from the sum of money paid by the

children, must be about 600. It appears, then, that 600 children receive a year's education, such as we have described, for about 500*l.*! — not more than 16*s.* 8*d.* per head! Surely few things are in their nature so cheap as elementary education.

The usual difficulties exist for ascertaining what is really the after-career of the children who have passed through the Borough Road School. As far, however, as facts have been gleaned, they speak very favourably for the effect produced. The following is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Dunn (the secretary of the society), and from that of Mr. Crossley, the master of the school.

Mr. Dunn:—

"Do you think that the society has any opportunities of learning the destiny, in after-life, of those who have been remarkably good scholars in the central school, or in other schools of the society?— In several instances we can trace them. We know that many of them are occupying situations as clerks or assistants in shops or warehouses, and generally succeeding; and many are employed as gratuitous Sunday school teachers."

Mr. Crossley:—

"Have you been able to judge from any instances that have come under your observation, that boys educated at the Borough School have afterwards preserved a quickness and intelligence, and a capacity for learning, which they have there acquired? — If their success in life be at all a test, we have many proofs. Having been for many years at the school, and thousands of children having passed through it under me, there is no part of the town where I do

not constantly meet them; and I have made inquiries on every occasion that I could, and I find them generally such as I could wish; they certainly have acquired a degree of quickness above boys educated on the old system."

"Will you state what is the result of your observation upon the boys educated in your school as compared with other boys who have received any sufficient education?—I can speak of the boys that go from the school; and with very few exceptions indeed they are filling situations, giving much satisfaction to their friends and to their masters. As to other boys, I cannot speak of them precisely by way of comparison; but I find that boys from other schools, and boys I meet about in various situations, do not possess the same quickness upon the average, *cæteris paribus*. The tendency of repeated questioning pursued in every stage of their instruction must be to make them quick."

"What kind of situations have you known them to fill?—They principally go out as errand-boys; sometimes they are taken into offices."

"Have you ever known them employed to serve in shops?—Yes, many are employed in shops, and many of them are filling respectable situations in life. I could point out a large number who are in business for themselves as small shopkeepers."

"From the information you have collected, do you find that they discharge the duties of those situations with a due regard to their character and to their duties?—We have repeated assurances of this; and as far as our own observation goes, it is borne out. We find them coming out as Sunday school teachers,

and becoming useful in various ways. Some of the British schools have been principally established by boys who have left the school. There is just now an instance at Hemel Hempstead. A young man who was in the school about three years, having been a little successful in his business, has established a school, and has with him now the principal monitor of the central school to superintend it as master."

Education Report, page 85.

In addition to the foregoing, we are enabled to state that no one instance has ever come to the knowledge of the directors, of a child who had been a member of the school being subsequently convicted of a criminal offence.

Mr. Crossley, to whom in a great degree the school is indebted for its present excellent state, has held his situation as master for more than fourteen years. He was once a member of the school himself, and was one of Mr. Lancaster's monitors at the time the school was under that gentleman's direction. Mr. Crossley appears to have done very much, especially during the last two or three years, towards rendering the exercises of the school more *intellectual* than they formerly were, or than the exercises of most schools are at the present moment. One chief means by which this improvement has been effected consists in a superior training of monitors.

As there are many schools which are now provided with libraries, we need scarcely mention that the Borough Road School is not deficient in this respect. The children eagerly avail themselves of the opportunity thus afforded, and the library is found to be a means of diffusing a good deal of general information.

In confirmation of our testimony in favour of the Borough Road Schools we have much pleasure in referring to that of Professor Pillans. Mr. Pillans examined the school in the Borough Road a short time ago, and he spoke to us in high terms of the pleasure he had received. An American gentleman, too, who takes an interest in all that relates to education, visited the school lately, and declared that he had seen no public school in America that would compare with it.

It must not, of course, be expected that the generality of schools in connexion with the British and Foreign School Society are equal to the one we have been describing. The school in the Borough Road is avowedly a *model* school, and as such is likely to be under superior management.

Training Establishment.—The number of scholar-teachers (as the French call them) is generally about 24. Their time is divided between teaching and learning; or, to speak more accurately, between the practical study of didactics, and the acquisition of that knowledge which it will be their duty to communicate. They are expected to apply very closely to their studies while they are in the establishment; and, in point of fact, they are at work, with but short interruptions, from five in the morning till nine at night. Still their stay is so brief, (not exceeding three months on an average,) that they necessarily leave the schools in a very imperfect state of preparation. As might be expected, those are found best to succeed who have a love for the profession; this quality making up for great deficiency in positive acquirements; and indeed doing much towards enabling the possessor to make rapid progress in the various studies in which a teacher

should excel. On this subject Mr. Dunn gives the following evidence before the Education Committee:—

"Those teachers that you send out to the country, are those persons who have served their time to other professions, and have applied to you, and whom you have found competent? — The persons who make the best teachers in our schools are intelligent mechanics, or persons who have been employed in shops or warehouses, but who seem attached to teaching: these are the class of persons we want, and we generally find them out by inquiring for them in Sunday schools. We consider that a person who has given up the Sunday voluntarily to the gratuitous instruction of the poor, has afforded evidence that he has some taste for teaching, and may probably be useful in a day school. We have frequently found that persons who have been through life accustomed to private tuition, although possessed of considerable attainments, make very poor teachers of British schools. A large class of persons may be met with who have acquired a good deal, but who have no ability for communicating what they know to children."

It is a most benevolent provision of the Creator, that the act of communicating knowledge, while it benefits the recipient, affords so much pleasure to the donor. In some indeed the love of teaching becomes quite a passion. An instance of this occurred lately at the Borough Road School. A young man, who had a situation in the Excise worth 200*l.* a year, threw it up, and entered at the Borough Road School to qualify himself to become a schoolmaster, with no other prospect than one of incessant labour, and a pittance of 60*l.* or 70*l.* a year. After going through the usual routine,

he accepted an appointment, in which he was to have a small house and a salary of 50*l.* a year. This appointment he holds to this day; and in spite of hard work and narrow income, he is probably a happier man than he would have been had he gone on struggling with his natural feelings, and cleaving to an occupation which was distasteful to him. But how much is it to be lamented, that a person cannot follow so honourable an impulse as that of a desire to disseminate knowledge, without sacrificing the ordinary comforts of life! In what profession can a man possibly engage, in which he may better promote the welfare of society? Surely it behoves the State to make such reasonable compensation to those who are able and willing to assist in rearing her sons and daughters — the future masters of her destinies — as shall raise them above the petty cares of life! But on this subject we shall have more to say at a future time.

We cannot close this short notice of the model school in the Borough Road without strongly recommending our readers to peruse the whole of the evidence given by Mr. Dunn before the Committee of the House of Commons: they will find their time amply repaid by the number of interesting facts and able deductions which it contains.

MODEL SCHOOL OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, SANCTUARY, WESTMINSTER.

We are sorry not to have it in our power to report as favourably of this school as of the one in the Borough Road. The fact is, there is a striking contrast between the two. We did not find here the sprightliness and intelligence which had delighted us

in the Borough Road School; but in their stead were to be seen too many signs of dulness, weariness, and *fear*. The discipline, we admit, is very efficient: the most perfect order prevailed; every boy was to an inch in the place assigned him, and not a word was uttered contrary to rule; — nay, so strict was the silence, that all our efforts had failed, as we approached the school, to catch the least indication of murmuring labours within; and we had nearly come to the conclusion that the boys had not assembled. We fully admit the advantages of this order; we are fully aware that its maintenance not merely aids the progress of the boys, but prevents the commission of many offences which would render severe punishment necessary. But an equally precise degree of order can be obtained by a mild yet firm system of government; and further, we venture to assert, that, useful as it is to accustom children to instant and exact obedience, the advantage is too dearly purchased if they are to be constantly under the operation of the demoralizing passion of fear—the generator of deception and cowardice, and therefore of misery.

Soon after we entered, a signal was given for the boys to rise from their seats, preparatory to a change of exercise. The signal appeared to us to be obeyed with promptitude and with an anxiety to be right. The master, however, was not satisfied; probably his practised eye detected some irregularities which escaped our notice. The order was repeated; again the obedience was not satisfactory. A third time the order was given, backed by the menace of severe general punishment in case of a third delinquency. We watched the movement with anxiety, and we were not a little

relieved at finding that this third performance of the manœuvre satisfied the master. We cannot suppose that failure would really have been followed by the execution of the threat; though there was that in the tone of the master and the looks of the boys which rendered it impossible for us to feel altogether easy as to the result; and if no real intention existed of inflicting the menaced chastisement, still the measure was objectionable, as injurious to that confidence in the master so necessary to secure the respect and habitual obedience of the pupils.

We were sorry to remark the harsh language and angry tones in which the boys were constantly addressed; and we were still more grieved to witness the cuffs and blows that were inflicted from time to time. We walked round the reading classes as we had done in the Borough Road School, but with comparatively little pleasure; the proceedings not being relieved and intellectualized by judicious questions and explanations, and the monotonous tones of the readers too well showing that the sense had not reached their heads, still less penetrated to their hearts. Of another exercise we are glad to speak far more favourably: we looked over the writing of some of the boys, and all such specimens as we saw were very good.

On inquiring how long the children remained in the school, and what they generally acquired, we were told that they stay on an average as much as three years; and that before leaving, they can generally read easily, can write, and work arithmetical operations in either of the first four simple and compound rules in arithmetic, and have moreover acquired a tolerable knowledge of the Scriptures.

There is a library attached to the school, to which the monitors only, as we believe, have access.

Some of the young men who are in process of training for teachers were in the school-room while we were there. They were standing in a class of little boys, and appeared to be performing the same exercises as their juvenile companions — in a word, to be *pro tempore* scholars. We understood that in this manner they passed through the classes *seriatim*, until they reached the top; by which time they were generally ready to be draughted off as teachers. To young men thus employed, the presence of strangers was, as might be expected, obviously unpleasant; and though the discipline to which they were subjected is in accordance with the maxim by which we are taught that we must learn to obey before learning to command, we greatly doubt whether the balance of advantage is in favour of this humiliation.

Perhaps this brief account of the National Society's model school may appear to some too little laudatory: we fear, however, that it will be found just. The arrangement by which the school is thrown open to visiters is a liberal one; and we should be very sorry to have made an unfair use of it, in publishing the result of our observations. We cannot, however, look upon the society in the light of a private body. It calls for general support; and a large sum of public money has lately been disbursed under its direction; the Lords of the Treasury having determined that the parliamentary grant of 20,000*l.* for purposes of education* should be applied exclusively to the building of schools recommended either by the National

* Written in 1834.

Society or the British and Foreign School Society: and, in point of fact, the National Society's share of the grant was upwards of 11,000*l.*; that of the British and Foreign Society being somewhat less than 9000*l.* Under these circumstances, the schools of both societies are open to public criticism. The tone of that criticism, however, should be modified by a consideration of the disinterested motives by which these societies are chiefly influenced, and the great exertions they have made to promote the public good.

We should be very sorry to fall into the disgusting error, so common in this country and elsewhere, of attacking those who do much, because they do not accomplish more; and, at the same time, laying no blame on those who do nothing at all; among which number are generally to be found the detractors themselves. When, therefore, we point out defects in the National Society's model school, we must not be considered as casting any reproach on the society, but merely as indicating circumstances which tend to lessen its amount of positive merit.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

Few improvements were ever adopted more eagerly, or carried forward more rapidly, than the plan of employing a part of the Sunday in the education of the poor. Fifty years ago, and the infant poor of this country were wandering about on the Sunday, idle, dirty, ignorant, and immoral. The great mass of them are now received into schools, where at least some amount of regular occupation is found, and some instruction is given; where cleanliness and neatness are much cultivated, and where, for the most part, they

come under the care of persons who are likely to treat them with kindness, and gradually to acquire an interest in their welfare.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN SUNDAY SCHOOLS.—We have already endeavoured to show, that if all the children of the poor went to Sunday schools, and remained there four years on an average, the total number in the schools at any one time would be about 1,100,000, or 1,200,000: the real number may probably be about 800,000 or 900,000.

ATTENDANCE.—On this head we have little positive knowledge: we apprehend, however, that there is generally much irregularity. The following specimen of attendance is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Althans, Secretary of the East London Auxiliary Sunday Schools' Union. We are, however, inclined to think it too favourable as a sample of the general habit.

"As respects the attendance of Sunday schools, is it very regular?—There is a paper which states the attendance in one school last Sunday, and I think that may be taken as a specimen of the attendance at Sunday schools generally. 'At Virginia Chapel Sunday School, Bethnal Green, June 29th, 1834, on the books—teachers, 23; scholars, 247: in attendance,—morning, 23 teachers, 188 scholars; afternoon, 23 teachers 220 scholars.' I think this will be a fair specimen of the Sunday schools in general; except that I rather think this school is in a better condition than some of the schools, because the teachers are very devoted."

"The attendance of the children depends in a great measure upon the zeal and interest which the teachers themselves show?—Almost entirely."

AVERAGE LENGTH OF A SUNDAY SCHOOL EDUCATION.—This we have estimated at about four years.

TIME IN SCHOOL.—Generally three or four hours each Sunday.

NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE EDUCATION PROFESSEDLY GIVEN.—Almost always confined to reading only. There are however exceptions to this rule. At the great Stockport Sunday School, for instance, writing and arithmetic are added; and the same is done at two large Sunday schools in Birmingham, containing together about 1,300 children. Many Sunday schools, too, have evening schools connected with them, open two or three times a week, in which writing and arithmetic are taught; but, according to Mr. Althans' evidence, the habit of attending these schools is generally confined to the elder boys.

MEANS OF INSTRUCTION AND PLANS OF TEACHING.—The system of boy-monitors is not in use in Sunday schools. The schools depend for their supply of teachers on the voluntary services of the young men and women belonging to the different religious congregations; and, to the honour of our country be it spoken, this source is found abundantly sufficient, although the number required is very great. Generally speaking, there is one teacher to every ten or twelve scholars; so that if we estimate the total number of scholars at 900,000, the number of teachers cannot be less than from 70,000 to 80,000. It is a fact that argues well for the system of Sunday school education, and is at the same time highly creditable to our working classes, that a large majority of these gratuitous teachers are persons who have themselves been brought up in Sunday schools: and indeed this

essential to the present extended scale of operations; r though a fair proportion of the middle classes join this labour of love, yet it is the working classes alone at are sufficiently numerous to furnish the requisite pply. The following is extracted from Mr. Althans' idence:—

"Have you any children that stay the whole time the school?—We have some that stay till sixteen: ey become monitors and afterwards teachers, and e the best teachers we can get."

"Are those instances very rare?—No: out of 23 achers in one school, 18 have been scholars."

Mr. Braidley, Boroughreeve of Manchester, who was amined by the Committee on the state of education that town, states that, of 120 teachers and superinndents in a large Sunday school with which he is conected, all except two or three were brought up in the hool: and on being asked whether there was any fficulty in keeping up so large a number of teachers, plied, "None whatever: we generally find that a fficient number of the elder children are, from prinple, willing to stop in the school to educate others."

LIBRARIES.—We are happy to say that it is becomg more and more the practice for Sunday schools to ve libraries connected with them. The value of a rary must, of course, depend very much on the selecn of books; and it frequently happens, in forming raries for the poor and half-educated, that the imrtance of including such works as are interesting d amusing is too little kept in view. The very extence however of a library is a proof of its possessing me attraction, since without readers it would speedy fall into neglect and decay. We may therefore el sure that a certain amount of good is being done;

and probably with increased experience the error we have spoken of will be remedied.

ACQUIREMENTS REALLY MADE.—In addition to the religious knowledge obtained in Sunday schools, of which, from its variety in kind and degree, it would be difficult to make any general report, there can be no doubt that a great number of children acquire there the power of reading fluently, and a small number (very small when compared with the whole) learn to write, and obtain some knowledge of arithmetic. But here, we fear, the enumeration of acquirements ends. Doubtless *all* the children make *some* progress in reading; but where, as is frequently the case, the power is acquired in so slight a degree that its exercise continues to be a business of labour rather than pleasure, the value of the accomplishment is but small. Still there is no doubt that thousands and tens of thousands among the working classes, including most of those who by their superior talent were likely to become leaders, have by means of Sunday schools acquired the power of reading fluently: and this we hold to be in itself a very important acquisition, and one which does much towards accounting for the great effects which we believe Sunday schools to have produced.

As the question of the value of reading without reference to other acquirements is of great importance, especially as regards the operation of Sunday schools, we shall venture to digress a little into its examination. We are aware that there are many who maintain that an education which confers the power of reading, and which does not at the same time cultivate the intellect and moral feelings, with a view of securing against the abuse of this power, is useless—nay, perni-

cious. In this opinion we cannot agree; for while we shall rejoice over every extension in the province of education, and while we feel as strongly as any can do how meagre it is at present even in our best schools, we cannot think one deficiency, however unfortunate, just cause for the creation of another: neither can we refuse to scatter our seed though tares may mingle with the crop; or withhold the use of an instrument, powerful for good, because in some instances it may be available for ill. We would no more refrain from giving instruction in reading on the grounds alleged, than we would object to teach a child to walk until we were well assured that he was thoroughly acquainted with all the pits, ditches, wells, and quagmires in the neighbourhood. If a child's path were so beset with danger, that unless watched at every step he would probably be killed or made a cripple for life, it might be necessary to defer teaching him to walk until he could be forewarned against the dangers he had to encounter, and taught how to avoid them. So, if the great mass of literature were of a baneful kind, then we admit it would be unwise to give a child the power of reading, unless he could at the same time be well fortified against temptation, and carefully instructed what books to choose.

If any one suspects for a moment that the general character of our literature is bad, let him enter a bookseller's shop, and take up a number of books indiscriminately, and examine the general tendency of each: he will soon find how very few, comparatively, are the works of a pernicious tendency. Then let him inquire into the comparative sale of the different books he has picked up, and he will, we think, at once

conclude that, with literary as with edible food, wholesome nutriment is the rule—poison the rare exception.

We much question even if there be any branch of literature which would not bear a like examination. We presume, however, that the two departments respecting which most doubts would be raised are those of fiction and politics.—First, as regards fiction. We think it would be very difficult to point out a single popular writer, the moral standard of whose works is not decidedly ahead of that of the public at large: and this, be it observed, is sufficient for our purpose; since, while we are injured by contact with inferior morality, we are benefited by the influence of that which is superior, be the superiority never so little. How much more triumphant, however, will be the defence of these writers, when we demand whether their works are not of purer morality, than the gossip, the scandal, the slang, the ribaldry, with which those who have no opportunity of communing with books often try to keep off *ennui!*

Assuredly the two most popular writers of our own day—Sir Walter Scott and Miss Edgeworth, deserve well of their country—we may say of mankind, for the truth and power with which they have traced the course of virtue and of vice. Every chord of our heart vibrates in turn at their magic touch; we laugh, we weep, we admire, we condemn, we rejoice, we pity,—and rarely is our sympathy carried in the wrong channel. In the scene at the farmhouse in "Old Mortality," we tremble for the high-minded and virtuous Henry Morton, and we shudder at the crimes to which gloomy fanaticism may lead. In "Guy

Mannering," we laugh at the Dominie for his eccentricities, while we love him for his affectionate heart and the perfect simplicity of his character. And who can follow the admirable Jeanie Deanes through her toils, dangers, and sufferings, in behalf of her erring but unfortunate sister, without becoming enamoured with a pure and sincere character, and feeling that true nobleness is confined to no sphere of life? Whose eye but glistens at the account of the sufferings of the hardy old fisherman who had lost his son, and whom the Antiquary finds at his ordinary work, vainly endeavouring to struggle with the feelings of nature? —Again, how many dry lessons in honesty would it not require to produce an effect equal to that which a child's mind must receive in perusing Miss Edgeworth's beautiful story of the Little Merchants! What child could read the tale of Lazy Laurence without acquiring some taste for useful labour, and without forming a resolution to shun bad company? or the story of the Cherry Orchard, without seeing the folly of anger and ill temper? How many thousands might have been deterred from going to the gaming-table if they had early in life read the story of the Lottery, where, by a chain of circumstances as natural as it is beautifully traced, success itself leads to misery!

In this way we might run through most of the works of these admirable writers, and show how each tends to the promotion of virtue and morality. Nor is it by resorting to artifice and improbability that this is accomplished. The very power of the author depends on his abiding by Nature; for the reader's mind and heart are more or less worked upon as he feels the truth or falseness of the portraits before

him. Errors may and do appear in the very best works; the reward of virtue and the punishment of vice being generally made to appear more certain in their operation on a man's success in life, (so far as the attainment of wealth and rank constitutes success,) than any institutions, however good, have hitherto rendered them. Imperfections, however, exist in other kinds of writing besides fiction, and to as great a degree. Let two historians of different opinions and different prejudices run through the records of any period in a country's history, and what a difference, not merely in their conclusions, but even in their statements of facts! in a word, how different, and therefore, in one instance at least, how *false*, will be the conceptions of their respective readers as to the same transaction! The observation is no less applicable to two travellers visiting the same country and at the same time. The historian, the traveller, and the novelist may all draw from Nature's stores, (and must do so if they will be read,) and yet according to their selection of materials will they present a true or false image of the whole. Which of these three classes of writers has hitherto been most successful it is difficult to say. Certainly, however, we look in vain for any work of history containing so faithful a picture of the manners of the people of this country in the early part of the last century, as is to be found in Fielding's Joseph Andrews: and we know of no work of travels equal to Hajji Baba, for conveying an accurate idea of the present state of Persia.

Even the inferior *and less popular* works of imagination possess negative advantages at least; inasmuch as they supersede pleasure of a debasing kind. And

rather than a man should pass his time at an ale-house or a gin-shop, at a bull-bait or a cock-fight, in a brothel or at the gaming-table, in gluttony or in sloth, in injuring the property of his neighbour or in slandering his character,— we would gladly see him occupied in perusing the silliest novel that ever issued from the Minerva press.

The vast sale of the best of our works of imagination is an undeniable proof of their greater popularity. As an interesting fact corroborative of our position, that the taste for a pure kind of writing is to be found in all classes of men, we may mention that Sir Walter Scott's works are of all others most in request at the London Mechanics' Institution.

As respects the newspaper press, too, we cannot but look upon it, with all its faults, as a most powerful engine of civilization and moral improvement; and we would therefore place all within the reach of its influence, by enabling all to read. We agree entirely in the view taken by Mr. Hickson on this subject, in the following evidence before the Poor Law Commissioners. Mr. Hickson is an inhabitant of Stanstead parish, Kent; and, together with other members of his family, has assisted in diffusing education in his neighbourhood.

"Then you believe the low-priced periodicals now published will have a beneficial tendency?—I believe the Penny Magazine will work usefully; but cheap newspapers would do much more good. I have found it difficult to create an interest in the mind of an ignorant man on matters of mere general literature; but his attention is easily enlisted by a narrative of the stirring events of the day, or local intelli-

gence; and I believe that an account of the trial of a poacher, a fire, or even a murder, in the immediate neighbourhood, will often do more towards the acquiring habits of reading, and paving the way for general information, than any other means which could be adopted. The dearness of newspapers in this country is an insurmountable obstacle to the education of the poor. I could name twenty villages within a circuit of a few miles, in which a newspaper is never seen from one year's end to the other."—*Appendix* (A.) *to First Report of the Poor Law Commissioners*, p. 258 a.

We are aware that many have attributed the riots and burnings in the agricultural districts to the excitement of political writing; but such a conclusion is in direct opposition to facts. The following evidence on this point is given by Mr. Chadwick:—

"The witnesses whose testimony I received with relation to the agricultural riots concurred in stating that the most dangerous of the mobs were formed from the most ignorant and ill-educated of the labouring classes. The evidence of the best-informed persons with reference to the state of education, and the habits of the people chiefly concerned in those riots, was similar to that given by Mr. Russell, magistrate of Swallowfield, who states that 'the instigation was neither propagated by the press, nor travelled on horseback or in gigs. I am satisfied that there were no unseen agents; that there was no mysterious conspiracy, no premeditated suggestion. In this, and I apprehend in all agricultural districts, there is very little reading of tracts or newspapers among the poor: they take no concern in any politics beyond those of

their village, or, at the utmost, of their county; and if a handbill or a passage of a newspaper is ever read by one of them to his companions at the beer-house on a Saturday evening, it is because it relates to some parties whom they know, or to some incident in their neighbourhood.'"

Appendix (A.) *to Poor Law Report*, p. 264 a.

The broad fact, that there is comparatively little reading of newspapers in the agricultural districts, must be known to almost every one of common observation, and is itself sufficient to disprove the assertion that newspapers have led to rick-burning. It would indeed be strange, if newspapers, which in this country are almost the only vehicles by which the laws are made known, and the people warned of the consequences of violating them, were the means of leading to breaches of the law. We are quite ready to admit that much bad matter is circulated in newspapers, and much advice given which is of a very mischievous tendency. But we must examine the institution as a whole, and not fix our eyes on particular parts. Let any one look over a file of newspapers, taken at hazard, with a view of marking such parts as he considers objectionable, and we think he will be surprised how little he will find: while, on the other hand, he will meet with paragraph after paragraph which contains useful intelligence, sound reasoning, or excellent advice.

In considering the defects, too, of the newspaper press, we must bear in mind the extraordinary and anomalous state in which it is at the present time; a state which cannot possibly endure. We allude of course to the existence of an illicit press, which the

law, unsupported by public opinion, is wholly unable to put down. The difficulty will probably be met by the removal of the stamp-tax; and we cannot but hope that when once the man of capital and superior education is admitted into the field of cheap newspaper publication, much trash which now finds customers will be driven to the wind, in the same way as other trash has disappeared before the *Penny Magazine*, the *Saturday Magazine*, and *Chambers' Journal*.

We have digressed thus far in considering the tendency of our popular literature, because we think the amount of benefit conferred in bestowing the mere faculty of reading is frequently placed too low. That such an education is far, very far, from sufficient, we should be the last to deny: but inasmuch as the power of reading gives access to great stores of knowledge, (now that literature is so cheap,) and is a means of obtaining innocent and rational amusement, we look upon the acquirement as a very important step in education; and we cannot but think that the enabling so many to take this step is one, and not the least important, of the means by which Sunday schools have raised the moral character of the neighbourhoods in which they have flourished.

COST OF SUNDAY SCHOOL EDUCATION.

As nearly all the teaching is gratuitous, the money cost of the education afforded consists of little more than rent and stationery. At the great Stockport Sunday School, 5,000 children are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, at an annual cost of 500*l.* only; which is not more than 2*s.* a-head. This is indeed a

small expense, and is probably somewhat lower than that usually incurred, notwithstanding the greater extent of the education afforded. The great scale of the Stockport School must, under the able management with which it is carried on, be productive of economy. We think that, speaking generally, the average cost of a Sunday school education may safely be put down at about *2s. 6d.* per head per annum.

EFFECTS OF SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

We believe that Sunday schools have produced a very great and very beneficial effect in this country. We happen, however, to be best acquainted with their results in the town of Birmingham, which was one of the first to adopt them, and where Sunday schools have to this day been the principal means of diffusing education. We have the happiness of being nearly connected with some who took an active part in their first introduction, now fifty years ago, and who have watched their progress from that time to this.

Before Sunday schools were established, and until there had been time for those educated in them to take their standing as men, neither life nor property was secure. A brutal spirit of intolerance, religious and political, pervaded the people; and drunkenness, filth, and rags met the eye in every direction. The disgraceful riots which broke out in the year 1791 have been deemed of sufficient importance for record in the history of the country. For many days the riots raged without any attempt being made to quell them. At first the fury of the mob was directed exclusively towards the Dissenters, and especially to-

wards those who were thought to hold liberal opinions in politics. Among others who suffered on this account was the enlightened philosopher and warm philanthropist Dr. Priestley. His house, library, and laboratory were destroyed, and he himself was obliged to fly from the town. Every morning the roads were lined with drunken men who had fallen asleep on their return from some work of devastation. In one instance, a number of wretched beings who had crowded into the cellar of a house to which they and their companions had set fire, were crushed to death by the building falling in while they were still plundering the wine-vaults. The riots at length assuming the form of an indiscriminate attack on property, a vigorous effort was made to suppress them, which succeeded, and a few of those concerned were brought to trial and suffered death.

Birmingham has certainly witnessed many riots since that time, but none of so terrible a kind. Most of the subsequent disturbances have been occasioned by the high price of provisions; the ignorance of the people leading them into the absurd error of supposing that the dearth could be alleviated by the partial destruction of the existing stock. These riots, however, became less and less formidable, until at length they totally disappeared; and it is now nearly twenty years since there was any outbreak of the kind. During this latter period, life and property have been invariably respected, and the laws of the country observed; and the remotest apprehension of an attack on the butchers and bakers, or on those holding peculiar religious or political opinions, has long since died away. Drunkenness, in the mean

time, though still existing to a melancholy extent, is much less common than formerly; and as respects clothing, the working classes and their children are greatly improved in neatness and comfort. In proof of the superior condition of the people in these and other particulars, we may mention that the cholera made no head in Birmingham. Among a population of more than 120,000 souls, there certainly were not in the whole more than *twenty* cases of cholera!

Crimes of the gravest kind, such as murder, burglary, and arson, are become very rare indeed. The offences that are committed consist principally of petty thefts; and we have been assured by the chief constable of the town, (a very intelligent man, who has been for many years connected with the police department,) that the offenders consist very much of one set, comparatively few in number, but each committing many offences, and often passing through his hands several times. He mentioned one young woman who had been committed to the county gaol *eight times in the same year!* Many of the young thieves are, however, too cunning to allow themselves to be caught more than twice in the same county; a third conviction being often followed by transportation. They frequently move off, when released a second time from prison, to a new county; where, thanks to the absence of a general system of registration and correspondence, their former exploits are unknown, and where, therefore, they can start with a new character. Having again run the gauntlet of watch-houses, police-offices, and prisons, they move their quarters once more; and so go on, till either owing to their committing some very serious offence, or to their

appearing before a particular judge, they get transported or hanged.

We hope the time will shortly arrive, when our prisons, instead of being, as they now generally are, schools of idleness and crime, shall become schools of industry and morality; and when a child or an adult, who is once detected in crime, shall be separated from society, not for a given number of months or years, but until he can be restored with safety, be that time as long or as short as it may be.

This, however, is an observation *en passant*. Our object in these last remarks has been to show how a handful of rogues and pickpockets may find employment for a numerous corps of constables, prison-keepers, magistrates, lawyers, and judges; and may fill such an assize-calendar as will afford much dismal pleasure to those who delight to lament over the increased and increasing amount of crime! As respects Birmingham, we venture to say, without indulging in any exaggeration, but, on the contrary, whilst keeping far within the limits of truth, that more property was destroyed or stolen, and more terror inspired, during the single week of the riots of 1791, than during the whole of the last ten years.

The question, however, still remains—How far is this pleasing change attributable to education? We think, to a great extent; though we at once admit that other causes have been at work, and have assisted materially.

That education has effected a great deal in Birmingham, the following circumstances tend to demonstrate:—

1st. The progress of improvement has been coincident with that of education.

2nd. Several persons who have lived through the whole period in question, and who have had their attention constantly directed to the subject, are fully convinced that education has been the *cause* of the improvement. (We know of no one who has had the same opportunities of observation, and who has come to a different conclusion.)

3rd. The working classes believe that the education they have received has been beneficial. This is shown by their readiness to assist in educating others, even at the sacrifice of a portion of the only day of relaxation which they can command. (This fact tells doubly; as it marks, not only the high value which the working class place on education, but the existence among them of a liberal and generous feeling, and a power of self-control.)

4th. Many of those who have received an education in a Sunday school now hold respectable positions in society. Some have accumulated property in trade, and others have risen to a fair standing in the different professions. In the same class also are to be found many of those who now possess the greatest influence among the mechanics, and the great mass of the people.

5th. In one of the largest and oldest Sunday schools in the town, no instance ever came to the knowledge of the committee, of a pupil being in after-life convicted of an offence against the laws of his country, or of his applying for relief as a pauper. (We do not wish the reader to infer that the children

educated in this school have without exception turned out honest and industrious: such a fact, regarding a school constantly containing 800 children, would, if it could be proved, be in itself irresistible. All that it is safe to conclude from what we have said is, that the numbers of cases in which the children have afterwards fallen into crime, or become paupers, must be very small.)

The facts we have brought forward, when reviewed in combination, admit, we think, of no other conclusion, but that education, insufficiently as it may be afforded in Sunday schools, has proved itself a great instrument of civilization in the town of Birmingham.

In considering how far the causes brought into operation by Sunday schools appear adequate to produce the effects ascribed to them, we must bear in mind the indirect advantages which are obtained from them. We have already spoken of the intimate connexion between the middle and working classes which a Sunday school is often the means of creating. This must operate advantageously in very many ways; among others, in promoting habits of neatness and cleanliness among the children; for there are few parents who will not make an effort to prevent their children appearing in a ragged and dirty state before those who will be disgusted by such neglect, and who are likely to remonstrate with them on the subject.

The same cause—the interest excited among the richer and better informed in the concerns of those who are down low in society—has led in some Sunday schools to the establishment of sick-funds, by which habits of prudence are fostered among the children. The following is an account of the origin and progress

of the sick-fund belonging to two large Sunday schools in Birmingham. We received it from the treasurer, Mr. James Luckcock, who in this capacity, as in many others, has essentially promoted the true interests of the humbler classes of his native town: indeed, the desire to minister to their happiness appears to have ever been a ruling principle of Mr. Luckcock's life. May the fair retrospect which such a life must present cheer every hour of its honourable close! *

"In the year 1798, the managers of the Old and New Meeting Sunday Schools in Birmingham planned the establishment of a sick-club for the benefit of the children in case of illness, and with the additional motive of attaching them more steadily to the schools. As it was altogether an experiment, and as no appeal could be made to any similar attempt in any other quarter, the managers could be guided by probability alone in their original estimates. But supposing an average of one week's illness in twelve months for every member, they offered to allow a subscriber of a half-penny per week, 2*s.* a week during his illness; and a subscriber of a penny per week, 4*s.* The receipts during the first six years were 240*l.*, and the payments 140*l.* Thus encouraged, the plan was extended to such of the teachers as chose to become members, at the rate of 2*d.*, 3*d.*, or 4*d.* per week, at their own option, on certain stipulated conditions: but, considering that they would be permanent members, and that as they advanced in age their claims would become higher in proportion than the juniors, the payments to them were

* Since the above was written this truly estimable man has been removed by death.

rated at 8*s.*, 9*s.*, and 12*s.* per week. In the next ten years the receipts averaged about 40*l.* per annum, and the payments 20*l.* This increase, with the interest which began to turn in, showed an increasing prosperity, which has continued to the present day. Last year (1834) the subscriptions were 81*l.* 18*s.* 9½*d.*, and the produce from interest 66*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*; while the payments for sickness were only 43*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*, including 5*l.* for one funeral; leaving an increase during the year of about 100*l.* Our capital now amounts to 1467*l.*

"The variations in the amount of payments have been considerable, but in no instance have the payments in any one year equalled the subscriptions. In 1821 the receipts were 48*l.*, and the payments 43*l.*; whereas, in 1827, the receipts were 56*l.*, and the payments only 8*l.* 16*s.* The present number of subscribers is about 320; and it is worthy of remark, that though the subscribers throughout may average from 250 to 300, yet the number of deaths during the whole period falls somewhat short of one per annum.

"The following table shows the amount of our capital at the end of each of several years.

1829 - - -	£ 981
1830 - - -	1065
1831 - - -	1160
1832 - - -	1265
1833 - - -	1371
1834 - - -	1467

"There is good reason to hope that in a few years the funds may allow a considerable appropriation to aged members as annuitants. Several others of the Sunday schools in the town have borrowed our plans, and made considerable progress (I believe), though

hey are as yet far behind us in the results. The ociety's printed laws show that they have conformed o the legislative enactments respecting benefit-clubs nd friendly so cieties."

A sick-club on a yet larger scale (although it has not been in operation for so long a time) exists in the large Sunday school at Manchester, which has already been mentioned. This school (which is in connexion with the Established Church) contains nearly 3,000 children; and of these from 900 to 1,000 are members of the sick-club. The feelings of attachment between the children and the directors of the school (the creation of which we have already noticed as one great advantage to be obtained by Sunday schools) appear to exist very strongly in the school in question. The following is taken from Mr. Braidley's evidence before the Education Committee. The large sum raised by voluntary subscriptions among the children and teachers is a striking fact, and speaks most honourably for all parties concerned, and for the great moral effect produced by the education bestowed.

"We have found, that when we have had occasion to receive voluntary subscriptions for any purpose from the children or teachers, (I speak of the teachers, because they themselves have been formerly scholars,) it has united them the more in attachment to the school. That attachment has kept them longer in it, and has tied them to us in a way which I think we never could have otherwise looked for. The act of subscribing makes them take an interest in the institution. The subscriptions to which I allude are principally those towards the erection of the building itself. The present school was erected in 1818, and

the voluntary subscriptions of the children and teachers towards it have been about 800*l.* in that time. We have other subscriptions also in the school. We have a sick-club, consisting of such children of twelve years of age or upwards as may of their own accord become subscribers, that has been established now for more than twenty years, and the present number of members is from 900 to 1,000. They subscribe 1*d.* a week, and during the time of sickness receive an allowance of 4*s.* per week. We find that this sick-society has a very strong tendency to keep up in the children an attachment to the school."

Education Report, p. 178.

The great Stockport Sunday School, to which we have frequently referred, appears also to have produced very beneficial effects. The following extracts of a letter from J. A. Bury, Esq. who has been a member of the committee for nearly half a century, furnish some interesting particulars:—

"Stockport Sunday School is an institution of a religious nature, but on the most liberal plan; free from sectarian prejudices, bigotry, and superstition: and when I inform you we have a register of 40,000 children who have passed through the school, you will at once conceive the immense moral effects as well as mental improvement thereby promoted. By the last report, it appears that there are upwards of 5,000 scholars now on the list. This includes four auxiliary schools in different parts, at each extremity of the town, which comprise upwards of 1,000 scholars: the remaining 4,000 are in the great school.

"The school has been wonderfully supported, and affords in itself a great proof of the efficacy of the vo-

luntary principle. There are upwards of 500 teachers, all gratuitous: indeed, with the exception of two porters, no one is paid anything. The teachers are of different sects and parties, but are all confined to the moral precepts of the Gospel, and are excluded from giving any bias to their own dogmas.

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"The late Mr. Robert Parker gave us in his life-time 500*l.* to erect an organ in our large lecture-room; and at his death left us 500*l.* more towards carrying on the work.

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"The Independents are our best friends. The Baptists, New Itinerant Methodists, and even Quakers, support us. The Wesleyans have a flourishing school of their own in the town: however, notwithstanding this, our school increases; last year the number of scholars was greater by 309 that in 1832.

* * * * * * *

"Some of our friends of the Independent class have forsaken us, because we teach writing and accounts on Sundays. We would willingly teach these on week-days (evenings), but the factory hands here work so late that we have found it impracticable; therefore we put this on the score of works of necessity and mercy, considering our Saviour as sanctioning the pulling out sheep from the pit on the Sabbath. By this means we keep our pupils in the school until their moral habits are fixed, and do not turn them adrift with reading only.

"Not a few of our pupils, when grown up, become assistant teachers; so that the institution could now be supported with teachers within itself. You may form

some idea of the influence of the long and intimate connexion formed among the members of the school by the following anecdote:—Last year the building being struck with lightning, one poor boy on his knees during prayer was struck dead. It was announced in the school the Sunday following that a subscription would be raised for the poor boy's family;—his mother, I believe, was a widow. The subscription was limited to 1*d.* from each, and it was perfectly voluntary: no less a sum than 30*l.* was, however, raised.

"There is a library in the school, which now contains nearly 1,200 volumes, free to those scholars who behave well, and to the teachers: besides which, the teachers subscribe to a library of their own of nearly 600 volumes. They have also a small tract society and bible society in the school, and four benefit societies, two male and two female—all in a very flourishing state. Rooms, too, for their meetings are allowed in the schools, to prevent them from going to a public-house.

"When any of the scholars are sick, they are visited by their teachers; and some of them, indeed most of those who have died, have with their latest breath rendered thanks to God for the benefit received in the Stockport Sunday School, expressing entire submission to the will of God, and blessing their teachers.

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"Some of our old scholars have been advanced to respectable situations in life, and become masters, and obtained property.

"I have been now a member of the committee nearly half a century, during which time many of its first sup-

porters have died: I am now the oldest member, and am considered the father of the school. The three first originators of the school were Mr. MatthewMayer, father of our present treasurer, the late Mr. James Heald, and Mr. George Garside. They were all of them Methodists, but they were men of honest principles; insomuch, that when an attempt was made to unite a class in the school of the more serious-minded by a preacher, these three resisted it, declaring that as long as they received the public money from all parties, that money should not be prostituted to a particular sect, though that sect was their own. Mr. Heald declared, that if the sectarian principle was introduced, he would withdraw from the school, and not be guilty of such dishonesty. The attempt, however, was persevered in; a public meeting of the supporters of the school was convened, and a motion was brought forward in pursuance of the views of the sectarian party; but this motion was negatived by a considerable majority."

The following extracts are from the Reports of the Committee of the Stockport Sunday School.

"*Report for* 1831.

"Nor are the reports we hear from time to time of the welfare of scholars who have left the town and settled in different parts of the kingdom less cheering and encouraging. Your committee often find them either rising to be masters themselves, or, if still in the capacity of servants, filling their various stations with credit to themselves and satisfaction to their employers, and, above all, taking care to secure to their children the benefit of education.

* * * * * * *

"One Sunday morning, as your committee were employed in the usual avocations of the day, eight individuals were introduced into the committee-room, who stated that they were old scholars who had been brought up in the institution, but were then residing in Manchester. They presented to your committee a written address, expressive of the gratitude they felt 'to those kind benefactors who so nobly and liberally came forward on all occasions to supply their spiritual needs, and to devise and execute plans for the moral and religious instruction of themselves, and of the rising generation in general;' and concluded by requesting they might be allowed to present that 'small token of sincere attachment and gratitude, with their humble prayers to Almighty God for the long-continued prosperity and usefulness of the Stockport Sunday Schools.' When this address (to which our chairman made a suitable reply) had been read, they presented your committee with the sum of 5*l.* in aid of the funds of the institution; a sum which they stated to have been raised by the joint and equal subscription of themselves and two other old scholars, also residing at Manchester, who were unavoidably absent. To conclude this interesting scene, one of their number inquired for his old teacher; and on being informed that he was not at that time in the school, he produced an elegantly bound bible, and requested your committee to present it to his teacher as a token of his gratitude."

"*Report for* 1833.

"Although, since our last Report, this town, in common with many other parts of the kingdom, has been visited by that awful scourge the cholera, it is with

feelings of the deepest gratitude and thankfulness to Almighty God that your committee are enabled to state, that not one child out of the many thousands belonging to our institution fell a victim to the disease. We are the more impressed by this circumstance, as we observe from the Report of the Sunday School Society for Ireland for last year, that many Sunday schools were entirely abandoned, or had their usefulness greatly diminished, by the prevalence of the same awful visitation. Amongst the secondary causes which might have a tendency to check the progress of the disease amongst us, we think may be enumerated the cleanliness so remarkable in the persons and houses of the generality of our young people, many of whose parents have been educated in our institution."

Mr. Cowel, who, as one of the Factory Commissioners, visited the Manchester district, speaks in the following terms of Stockport and its working classes:

"It is well known at Manchester, that the operatives of Stockport are the most orderly and best-conducted of those in any manufacturing town in the neighbourhood; and equally well known that the operatives of Oldham are the least so. The size of Oldham and Stockport is nearly the same, and the distance from Manchester equal. The Oldham people invariably attend all the tumultuous meetings at Manchester, and there are always disturbances on those occasions along the Oldham road: the Stockport people very rarely, indeed scarcely ever, attend such meetings. In Stockport, while I was there, 17 per cent. of the whole population attended Sunday schools; at Oldham, only 7 per cent. I heard the superior

good conduct of the Stockport people invariably attributed to their superior education."—*Extracts from Reports made to Poor Law Commissioners*, p. 14.

Messrs. Rooth and Mayer, the proprietors of Hope Hill Spinning-mills, near Manchester, give the following evidence in favour of Sunday schools in their replies to the Factory Commissioners. In answer to the question, whether the health of their work-people has improved or deteriorated during the last ten years, they say:—

"Improved, for many reasons. Great improvements have been made in the building; in the heating, lighting, and ventilation of the rooms; in the cleanliness of the machinery, as well as the rooms, and the consequent cleanliness of the workers in such rooms. But the greatest change in favour of their health, as well as of their habits and morals, has been effected by education; and the factory children are in these respects particularly benefited by the kind of education they receive, which is in the Sunday schools. The factory children are among the best attendants at the Sunday schools; the regularity of the factory hours, as well as the influence of their masters and overlookers, inducing them generally to attend those schools, where they are placed under the care of teachers of a higher grade in society than the common day-school teachers, from whose example and instructions and kind care they learn to be clean and neat in their persons, regular and orderly in their habits and behaviour, and are generally uncommonly well clothed; and of course they carry the same cleanliness and good order to their own homes, and, by industry and economy, they obtain good furniture and

comfortable bedding, and obtain also the knowledge, as well as the means, of preserving their health, or being sooner cured if taken sick. They do also, by the recommendation of their teachers, and by the example of the more provident among themselves, pretty generally become members of sick or funeral societies, which are a comfortable provision for them, rendering parochial assistance unnecessary."

FACTORY SCHOOLS.

Many cotton factories have now schools connected with them; and these, from their number, the large scale on which some of them are carried on, the superior plans that have been introduced into several of them, and the striking results obtained, deserve particular notice. We do not refer to schools erected in consequence of the passing of the Factory Bill, by one clause of which it is attempted to make education compulsory. We speak of the schools which had been established by the more enlightened mill-owners before the act was passed or brought forward.

With reference to the clause just mentioned, we are sorry to perceive, by the Report of Mr. Rickards, the commissioner appointed to superintend its enforcement, that it has proved almost an entire failure. By his report, it appears that out of 2,000 mill-owners only *six* have made any change in consequence of the provisions of the Factory Act for enforcing education. We were prepared for such a result by a letter which we received some time ago from a gentleman of extensive connexions at Manchester. The following is an extract:—

"It [the education clause] is generally, perhaps universally, an obnoxious regulation. It makes that which should be supplied by the whole of a community a burden on a part—namely, on the mill-owners. It is resisted, therefore, even by those who are most friendly to education, as an injustice. From the regulation in this way having raised a spirit of opposition in the minds of the masters, I am inclined to think that less attention will be paid to education by mill-owners, and less education in consequence will be bestowed in mills, now education is compulsory, than before the compulsion existed. Partial legislation can never be wholly successful in its object. In this instance it will, I believe, signally fail."

A fact of great importance—and of the truth of which we were assured by one of the Factory Commissioners—is, that those factories in which most attention is paid to the education of the children, are found in reality to be at the same time the most flourishing as regards the interests of the proprietors. We perceive that the author of an "Inquiry into the State of the Manufacturing Population," who appears to have a good deal of personal knowledge on the subject, makes the same remark.

"That many of these evils may be in a great measure mitigated even by individual exertion, is clear and certain. In several cases which we know, where the proprietors of factories have had the welfare of their people honestly at heart, much has been done towards an amelioration of their condition both physical and moral: and it is important to mention, that *these houses are without exception among the most flourishing in the trade.*"—P. 27.

The interest which the master-manufacturer has in the education of his work-people appears to be fully appreciated by the shrewd and thriving New Englanders. The following is taken from the evidence of Mr. Kempson, an American, before the Factory Commission:—

"Have you any national system of education?—We have public schools, supported partly by state funds, and partly by bequests. All children have the privilege of attending."

"Do they, in point of fact, very generally attend in the manufacturing states?—They universally attend; and I think that information is more generally diffused through the villages and the whole community of the New England States, than amongst any other community of which I have any knowledge."

"What is the general view taken of these schools by the manufacturers and persons of wealth in America?—From their experience they deem them of the greatest importance to the welfare of the state. They are encouraged by the state government and all the leading persons of the state."

"How do the children whom you employ obtain education?—The manufacturers are always anxious that the children should absent themselves from the manufactory during two or three months of the year to attend the schools. The manufacturers very frequently suggest to the parents the necessity of the children being taken to school. The sending the child to school is generally an inconvenience to the manufacturer."

"Is the inconvenience of the children going to the school such as to increase the cost of production?—

I do not think it does increase the cost of production. The only inconvenience is in the trouble of getting other hands. We think the advantage of their being educated more than counterbalances that trouble."

Factory Commissioners' First Report, p. 70.

Most of the factories which are described as being in the best state as regards the education of the children and the comfort of the work-people generally, are large factories in rural situations. These appear to combine, in the greatest extent possible (under present arrangements), the advantages of concentration and separation. In a town it is impossible for the proprietor of a factory to do much as an individual towards guarding his work-people from temptation, and securing to them the blessings of pure air and cleanliness. On a broad scale, and with a good system of municipal government, which should make the petty interests of individuals always give way to the great interests of the community, we doubt not that these objects could be as well obtained in a town as in the country; whilst in other respects a town offers facilities for the mental and moral improvement, and general happiness of the labouring classes, which are unattainable in a state of insulation. At present, however, the owner of the least patch of land in a town may set at nought the wishes and comforts of his neighbours: by stopping up or spoiling some public promenade, erecting a gin-shop, or opening a cock-pit, he may render futile the best-arranged plan for promoting the general good.

An instance of this kind has fallen under our own observation. About four years ago, the owner of a mere nook of land adjoining one of the extensive iron-

works in the county of Stafford was induced to let his ground for the erection of a beer-shop. The situation was fatally well chosen: it is placed, evidently by design, so fully in view, that not one of the many hundreds of persons employed in the establishment can pass from one part of the works to another without being exposed to its dangerous temptation; at every move their eye is sure to glance

> "Where the Red Lion, flaring o'er the way,
> Invites each passing *workman* that can pay."

As might be expected, in too many instances this constant attack has proved irresistible, and many who should be at their work are found loitering in the beer-shop: in short, a distinct change for the worse has taken place in the habits of the men; the vice of drunkenness having much increased.

In Manchester, the inconvenience of the land being split up into a number of small patches shows itself also in another way. Great numbers of the streets there are wholly unpaved, owing to some of the owners of the land refusing to bear their share of the expense. The consequence is, that it is impossible thoroughly to cleanse the streets, and fever is excited by the fumes and vapours arising from heaps of foul refuse and pools of stagnant water.

The time cannot be far distant when every town in the country will be provided with a local government so constituted as to deserve and ensure public confidence.* When that period arrives, we hope the propriety of authorising every town to purchase, as a community, all the land on which it stands, will be

* Written in 1834.

taken into consideration. To us the case appears to be similar to that of a canal or a railway, in which the private will of an individual is made to yield to the public good. We should anticipate the most beneficial results from such an arrangement; and in no respect more so than in education.

Mr. Tuffnell, in his Report from the Lancashire district, as an Assistant Factory Commissioner, speaks as follows of some of the country factories:—

"In towns, the tie that binds together employer and employed is of course less strong; but in the country the feelings of attachment are not unfrequently pushed to an extent that could not be easily surpassed. The population surrounding a country mill, to the number of one or two thousand, are sometimes entirely dependent on its master for work and subsistence; but the master is equally dependent upon them for the necessary services they perform; and whether it is that this mutual dependence is more apparent, or that the people are more civilized, it certainly seemed to me that there was less assumption of undue importance or manifestation of pride on the part of the master, and more esteem on the part of the workman, than I have ever witnessed in any agricultural district. The proprietors of these establishments frequently go to considerable expense in founding schools, and in providing for the moral improvement of those they employ; and in general they are perfectly aware that it is their interest to do so."—*Supplementary Report of the Factory Commissioners*, part i. D. 2, p. 222.

In another part of his Report, Mr. Tuffnell remarks:—

"But it is in the country that the superior condi-

tion of the factory population is principally displayed; and I do not believe that any part of England can show instances of comfort and prosperity surpassed by that which is enjoyed by cotton-workers in country districts. The cottages of the workmen in Hyde comprise each two sitting-rooms, a pantry, a privy in a small yard walled, and two large rooms up-stairs. Several of the houses contained books; and I give as a specimen the literary furniture of one of them, taken at random. The house belonged to Samuel Broadbelt, a spinner, earning 30*s.* a week, besides coals and house-rent, the expenses of which are subtracted from his wages by his master. His books were, a volume containing 292 hymns, Cottage Comforts, Scott's Force of Truth, Wesley's Hymns, the Panorama of London, the Reform Bill, Mackenzie's Biography, Columbus's Discovery of America, Robinson Crusoe, a small novel, a monthly periodical, the United States' Co-operative Journal, and a volume containing Chapone's Legacy, Gregory's Legacy, and Pennington's Advice. It would be an injustice to compare these dwellings with those of agricultural labourers, to which they were far superior in every respect. Judging from what I have seen of the two classes, the workmen of these country factories are, as I have stated before, much more healthy-looking than in towns; and in the weaving department, where girls are mostly employed, the not unusual ruddiness of their faces attests the wholesomeness of their occupation."—*Supplementary Report of the Factory Commissioners*, part i. D. 2, p. 204.

Mr. Tuffnell speaks as follows of the superior management of large factories:—

"I invariably found that the large factories were

those in which the health, general comfort, and convenience of the workmen were most attended to, and where they were the best off in every respect. And it would be an extraordinary circumstance if it were not so. When a large body of workmen are collected together under one employer, he is enabled to allow them many indulgences at a comparatively small expense, but which would cause a serious outlay to the proprietor of a small establishment. It is the interest of a master-manufacturer to do all that lies in his power to accommodate his men, as he thereby is enabled to attract the best workmen into his employ, owing to the good repute which his factory will bear among them: therefore, a large establishment is certain to be best regulated, as it can be most cheaply well regulated. Accordingly, the greatest mills I always found to be the cleanest, the machinery most securely fenced off, and the hands of the neatest and most respectable appearance. In Messrs. Birley and Kirk's mill, the largest in Manchester, the workmen are allowed as much hot water as they please at tea-time, without charge, and persons are employed to take it to them. In Messrs. Strutt's mill, at Belper, each hand is allowed a pint of good tea or coffee, with sugar and milk, for one halfpenny, and medical assistance gratis: a dancing-room is also provided for them in this establishment. It could never answer to put up a copper to heat water for twenty or thirty persons; nor could tea or coffee be sold at this price unless a large number were supplied with it. Mr. Ashton can afford to pay for all the surgical assistance that is yearly required by his 1,173 workmen, as he can contract for it at six guineas a year: did he employ only a twelfth part of that number, he assuredly could not get a

surgeon to take the contract at a twelfth part of six guineas. Mr. Bott undertakes to attend to all the ailments of the operatives in Messrs. Lichfield's mills on payment of a halfpenny each weekly: he certainly would refuse to attend twenty persons for tenpence a week."—*Supplementary Report of the Factory Commissioners*, part i. D. 2, p. 207.

Messrs. Ashworth, of Turton, near Bolton, have paid great attention to the education of the children in their factory. The results will in part be noticed in our section on Infant schools. The following is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Greenhough, overlooker of the factory, and of one of the spinners:—

Mr. Greenhough:—"Can they all read and write?—Two-thirds of them can. On going round to make up the returns for the Commission, I found that only five in 500 hands could not read; and those five came from Manchester lately, and we had only had them two months. We have a night school on the premises; and when a boy has nothing to do, he can walk into the school and read a newspaper or any history, as we keep a library of books for their use."

"Do they read in the day-time during the intervals of their work?—Yes; many carry books into the mill, and if the work is right we never notice it. I have read many a volume through when I was a spinner."

"Are the factory children in towns equally moral and well instructed with those in the country?—They are not so well off in towns; they have not equal privileges in schooling as in the country. I speak only with reference to Bolton."

The Spinner's evidence:—"Is there any improvement in factory children since you were a boy?—

Yes, great improvement; they are better behaved, and better in their learning."

"Can a greater proportion read and write than then?—Yes; there is more provision for their education made on the premises; on the Sabbath and two or three nights a week they are instructed gratis for about an hour and a half."

"Do you think that factory operatives in general are more educated and enlightened now than they were twenty years ago?—Well, as far as I have to do with them, they are; they are in general more intelligent than formerly."

"How were you educated?—At Sunday schools, and at a night school."

"What did you learn?—Reading, writing, and arithmetic."

"Is that degree of knowledge universal among the factory operatives?—I think there is altogether more information among the factory operatives than among other classes: there are not more than two or three in our establishment but what can read and write."

Factory Commissioners' First Report, D. 2, p. 135.

There are several other factories well worthy of particular notice, from the care taken to provide for the instruction of the work-people.

In so enlightened and liberal a policy as that of promoting general education, the Messrs. Strutt of Derby are of course among the most forward; and we refer to our Appendix for some valuable and detailed information as to the results of their exertions, which has been kindly afforded us by one of those gentlemen, in reply to a series of queries.

Messrs. Greenwood and Whitaker, the proprietors

of the Burley Mills, Ottley, near Leeds, have also long paid attention to the education of the children in their employment; and the results have been most satisfactory. The number of their work-people is nearly 400; and yet, during the space of eighteen years, the only instances in which the laws of the country have in any way been broken are a few cases of bastardy. This fact is attested by the principal acting magistrates of Ottley. The average time each person has continued at the Burley Mills is upwards of ten years. The health of the operatives has been so good, that the average amount of interruption to each from illness has, for many years, been less than one day per annum; and the deaths, for the last ten years, have been at the rate of only 1 in 127 per annum. Lastly, as a proof of the existence of habits of prudence and forethought, it may be mentioned that 31 of the workmen have together saved no less a sum than 2,145*l.* from their earnings. We do not suppose that education has been the sole cause of this excellent state of things at the Burley Mills: the same enlightened benevolence that directed the attention of the proprietors to the education of the children would probably suggest other plans for ameliorating the condition of the operatives.

At Stroud in Glocestershire, and in the surrounding district, great attention is paid to education; though the ordinary practice there appears to be for the masters of the factories to subscribe liberally to the neighbouring schools, instead of having schools of their own. The evidence collected by the Factory Commissioners who visited Stroud agrees in describing the people as moral, sober, and orderly. Mr.

Burgh, the principal acting magistrate of the district, says he recollects only two cases of very serious crime since he first went to live there, which is now nearly sixty years ago.

Mr. Ashton, of Hyde in Cheshire, uncle of the young man who was murdered through the frenzied ignorance of some Trades' Unionists, has an excellent school attached to his factory. Mr. Tufnell thus speaks of Mr. Ashton's benevolent exertions:—

"Mr. Thomas Ashton,—than whom there does not exist a person who has been a greater benefactor to the district he inhabits, or who is held in greater reverence and respect both by the labouring population around him (of whom he employs 1,200), and those in a higher sphere, who enjoy the benefit of his acquaintance, — this gentleman has built a school, in which 640 children are instructed on Sundays in reading, writing, and arithmetic; with a library attached to it, where the operatives read after the conclusion of their work. He has also founded an infant school, in which 200 children are educated; and two night schools, where instruction of a superior character is imparted."—*Supplementary Report of the Factory Commissioners*, part i. D. 2, page 223.

Dr. Kay, in his valuable and instructive pamphlet on the Moral and Physical Condition of the Working Classes at Manchester, makes mention of Mr. Ashton's enlightened policy, and his benevolent exertions to promote the education and happiness of his work-people. The following is an extract from Dr. Kay's work:—

"Twelve hundred persons are employed in the factories of Mr. Thomas Ashton at Hyde. This

gentleman has erected commodious dwellings for his work-people, with each of which he has connected every convenience that can minister to comfort. He resides in their immediate vicinity, and has frequent opportunities of maintaining a cordial association with his operatives. Their houses are well furnished, clean, and their tenants exhibit every indication of health and happiness." [Here follows an account of Mr. Ashton's schools, which agrees with that given by Mr. Tufnell.] "The factories themselves are certainly excellent examples of the cleanliness and order which may be attained by a systematic and persevering attention to the habits of the artisans.

"The effects of such enlightened benevolence may be to a certain extent exhibited by statistical statements. The population, before the introduction of machinery, chiefly consisted of colliers, hatters, and weavers. Machinery was introduced in 1801, and the following table exhibits its consequences in the augmentation of the value of property, the diminution of poor's rates, and the rapid increase of the amount assessed for the repairs of the highway, during a period in which the population of the township increased from 830 to 7,138.

Year.	Sums assessed for the relief of the poor. Yearly average.*	Population.	Yearly average per head of population.
1801	..	830	
2	£		s. d.
3	395 ..	..	7 2
4			
5			
6			
7			
8	294 ..	....	4 0
9			
1810			
1	..	1806	
2			
3	543 ..	..	5 2
4			
5			
6			
7			
8	420 ..	..	3 0
9			
1820			
1	..	3365	
2			
3	388 ..	..	1 11
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9	597 ..	..	2 0
1830			
1	..	7138	

" This table exhibits a cheering proof of the ad tages which may be derived from the comme

* This table is not an exact copy of the one in Dr. Kay's it is however calculated from that table. We have preferred the yearly average of the amount of poor's rate for periods years to the sum for each year separately. We have also the yearly average for each head of population, which does not in Dr. Kay's table.

system under judicious management. We feel much confidence in inferring, that, where so little pauperism exists, the taint of vice has not deeply infected the population; and concerning their health we can speak from personal observation. The rate of mortality, from statements with which Mr. Ashton has politely furnished us, appears to be exceedingly low. In thirteen years (during the first six of which the number of rovers, spinners, piecers, and dressers was 100, and during the last seven above 200,) only eight deaths occurred."—P. 100.

In reply to an inquiry as to the moral state of his work-people, Mr. Ashton says —

"We have had only one prosecution for felony or larceny in our establishment for thirty years; and I can say that there are very few, if any, in the neighbouring mills. I have made inquiries from the neighbouring minister, who has christened the principal part of the population; and he finds, by looking over the register, that there are fewer bastards in proportion than there were forty years ago, and fewer in the last ten years than in the previous ten."

Factory Commissioners' First Report, D. 2. p. 86.

The following table may not be uninteresting. It shows the actual state of education in Mr. Ashton's factory. Mr. Ashton says that the table is perfectly trustworthy, as it is the result of a careful examination of each workman or child separately. By this table we see how little is really effected in the way of direct instruction, even under the comparatively favourable circumstances in which Mr. Ashton's work-people are placed; and we may thence infer how trifling must be

the amount of knowledge in fact acquired under ordinary circumstances.

"A List of Persons in the employ of Mr. Thomas Ashton, of Hyde; with an account of their respective Ages and Capabilities as to Reading and Writing: taken 25th March 1833.

Age.	Cannot read.	Can read.	Can read and write.	Total.
9	1	12	4	17
10	2	33	6	41
11	4	34	14	52
12	4	34	15	53
13	4	32	17	53
14	2	43	30	75
15	3	21	18	42
16	3	31	29	63
17	—	28	29	57
18	6	31	42	79
19	3	22	36	61
20	1	22	33	56
21 to 30	28	104	180	312
31 — 40	11	36	72	119
41 — 50	6	20	29	55
51 — 60	5	7	16	28
61 — 70	4	1	6	11
71 and upwards	—	1	—	1
Total	87	512	576	1,175

SCHOOLS FOR PAUPERS.

We know of no instance in which a tolerably good school has been opened for pauper children without producing satisfactory results. One great cause of this, in our opinion, is, that the propriety of employing the children during a considerable portion of their time in manual labour is, in the case of paupers, too apparent to be readily overlooked. We heartily agree with Mrs. Park in her interesting and instructive evidence (which we shall presently quote at length), that

as regards paupers, "all moral instruction must be based on a continued round of industry."

We are acquainted with an excellent pauper school, of which we shall give a few particulars. It is under the direction of the guardians of the poor at Birmingham, and is called the Birmingham Asylum. There are generally about 300 children in it, from the age of two or three to thirteen or fourteen. It has for some time been the practice of the guardians to relieve out-door paupers by taking charge of one or two of their children instead of giving them money; such children are placed in the asylum, as are also the children of all in-door paupers. Bad as is the material thus collected, (and the assemblage of heads would petrify a phrenologist,) the long course of industry, cleanliness, and punctuality through which the children are carried, (always, however, under kind treatment,) appears generally to effect a complete cure. As far as it can be ascertained, no instance has occurred of a child brought up in the asylum afterwards sinking into pauperism.

The work at which the children are employed is heading pins. The guardians of the poor, however, do not enter into the trade of pin-making themselves; they sell the labour of the children to one of the Birmingham manufacturers, who fits up shops at the asylum and sends workmen to superintend the children. The children work eight hours a day, and the rate at which their labour is paid for by the manufacturer is 6*d.* per week for each child between eight and ten years old, 1*s.* a week for each between ten and twelve, and 1*s.* 6*d.* per week for each between twelve and fourteen; beyond which age no children

remain in the asylum. In this way some hundred pounds a year are paid towards the expenses of the asylum; but the benefit conferred on the children by accustoming them to regular labour is far more important.

Two hours a day are given to formal instructions; and among other exercises singing is very properly included. Once a month the parents are admitted into the asylum to see their children. This is well; but one evil is found to result, namely, that during the two or three days following the parental visit, bowel complaints are common among the children, owing to the indigestible food with which, from mistaken kindness, they have been supplied. The general health of the children, however, is very good, which is owing in some measure to their breathing good fresh air; the asylum being situated in an open district at the outskirts of the town.

What we most admire in this institution is an arrangement for keeping up a superintendence of the children after they have left. Once a year the governor goes through the whole circuit, 20 or 30 miles round Birmingham, visiting every boy who has been put out as an apprentice. He makes a point of seeing first the master, and then the apprentice, in private, in order to learn from the former how the boy is conducting himself, and from the latter whether his master treats him kindly. As a careful inquiry is made into the character of all who apply for apprentices from the asylum before the child is entrusted to them, it happens but very seldom that instances of cruel treatment are met with. When a case does occur, the governor immediately applies to the proper authorities

o have the indenture of apprenticeship cancelled. he children are generally very glad to see their nnual visiter; while the expectation of his coming, he interest in their welfare which his visit betokens, he certainty that their conduct will be passed in re- iew, and each part commended or blamed as it may leserve, must and do produce the best effects. As ve have said before, and the fact is too important not o allow repetition, *no instance is known* (though some ew may have occurred) *of a child brought up at this sylum afterwards becoming a pauper.*

A system similar to the one we have here described as been adopted in the education of pauper children at Liverpool, and with very good results. We have not, nowever, any detailed information respecting it.

We are aware that many workhouse-schools exist vhich produce no good whatever, and that *education* s made to bear the discredit of this failure. As rea- onable, however, would it be to charge the science of nedicine with the quackery of Dr. Eady, or the pur- uits of commerce with the forgeries of Fauntleroy. Some crabbed, ignorant, and lazy fellow, whom nobody would entrust with the care of his pigs, is picked up nd placed in command over a number of helpless children: it being quite forgotten that the practical essons in cruelty and injustice, which he will afford every minute he is in authority, will outweigh a thou- sand times the value of all that he can teach, even if he drain to the very dregs the contents of his miser- able brain. He is desired to instruct his prey in read- ing, which he is considered competent to do, because he can just distinguish "an *i* from an *izard*.". Read- ing, however, is the nominal occupation; the main

business in his eyes, and that in which the thing called his heart delights, is to rate, cuff, and kick the children. To such a compound of brutality and absurdity is the name *education* often applied ; and to the result of such a tragic farce as this do people point, to show how little is to be expected from cultivating the moral and intellectual faculties of the working classes !

The following are striking instances of bad workhouse education :—

Evidence of Mr. Miller, Assistant-overseer of St. Sepulchre's Parish.

" What is the effect of the sort of education received by the children in the workhouse ? — The education given is, I consider, no education whatever."

" Does not any person of superior education in your parish, then, take any active part in the education of the children ? — No : there is no one who takes any part in it ; nobody cares for them ; they are generally left to a pauper in the workhouse. This state of things hurts me very much, when I see the dreadful consequences of this neglect."

" What is the usual conduct of these children ? — Very bad indeed ; we find all those who have had a workhouse education hopeless objects. We have given them up entirely. Some of the most desperate, the most horrible characters in the parish, the most incorrigible paupers, are those who have had a workhouse education. It has been proved over and over again. They are all of them able-bodied men, who are in the gaols and workhouses alternately as thieves and paupers. We have succumbed to them because we can find no punishment for them. This applies equally to the girls, who, in addition, are frequently

prostitutes. We know not what to do with them. Something of this must be ascribed to the habits engendered from pauper parents, but most to their want of education."

"Besides the children in the workhouse, have you not others educated in charity-schools at the expense of the parish? — Yes; we have two schools: one, the Ladies' charity-school for females, conducted by two respectable schoolmistresses; and the other, a parochial school for boys and girls, conducted by a paid schoolmaster and schoolmistress."

"It is perhaps unnecessary to ask, whether a better education is not given to those children, and more attention paid to them, than to the children in the workhouse?—Unquestionably, a better education; in the Ladies' charity especially."

"How do these children turn out? — I examine all the poor who apply for relief, and I can state, that I never met with an instance of a person applying for relief who had been educated either at the parochial school or the Ladies' charity-school."

"Have you heard no complaint of these children elsewhere than in connexion with the parish?—I have never heard anything against them in any way; neither as having been in gaol, nor in any other such situations as those in which the workhouse children are constantly found."

Mr. C. P. Villiers, in his Report as Visiting Poor-Law Commissioner, says:—

"Upon inquiry in many parishes, whether any provision was made for the education of pauper children, it was usually said that there was a school in the house. This I observed to consist of a small outhouse

attached to the workhouse, where a certain number of children of both sexes, from the ages of three to twelve might be seen sitting on a bench, attended by an old male or female pauper, who, having the reputation of being able to read, is expected to instruct the children. It was not often pretended that they learned much, or often denied that they chiefly associated with the other inmates. In other cases, these children are sent to the National school, where also reading is taught."

Mr. Crook, Clerk of St. Clement's Danes.

"What sort of education have you for the children of your parish? — The education which they receive, judging from the effects, is of little or no use; for I am sorry to say that the children turn out very badly. We have great difficulty in getting rid of them; the boys especially. There is a large proportion of indifferent characters amongst them."

"Does any person of education take any part in the education of the workhouse children? — Their education has been in the hands of a man who has been a sailor and a watchman. The boys under his management were so disorderly, that in vexation he attempted to hang himself."

"Was this or the other persons who have had the education of children characterized by superior acquirements to those commonly possessed by watchmen and sailors, or persons of the labouring classes; or were they distinguished by their superior moral habits?—No; they certainly had no superior acquirements; and as to good moral habits they were not distinguished,—quite the contrary. One master was employed in keeping an account of the beer sent into

the workhouse by the publicans; and it was found that he had not only got liquors supplied to himself by various publicans, and charged an equivalent amount of beer to the parish, but had received money regularly, and charged it under the head of beer supplied to the workhouse. It was believed that his scholars had been made agents in the negotiation of these matters. This occurred some years ago. But I have constant reason to wish that more care were taken of the moral and intellectual education of the children. If the Government could only see what the course of life of these unfortunate children is, what plagues they are made, and how poor is their education, I think little time would be lost in getting an education which would have some influence on their habits and conduct in life."

The following instances, in addition to those of Birmingham and Liverpool, and to others mentioned in our Introduction, show of what excellent results the education of pauper children is capable when conducted on a tolerably good plan, and by respectable and competent persons.

Evidence of Mr. G. Huish, Assistant-overseer of St. George's, Southwark:—

"We have about seventy boys in our workhouse school. There have been nearly the same number during the time I have been in office. They have always been very fairly educated. During the last twelve years, they have been fortunate in having had very good masters; good moral men as well as good teachers."

"How have these boys turned out when apprenticed or got out to work? — The boys who have been

apprenticed have on the whole turned out very good boys."

"How many of these boys have you known return to the parish as bad characters? — Since I have been in office I only remember two cases."

"How many have returned from such causes as failure of work or want of competency, or other causes than those not deemed bad, or bad conduct?—I do not know of any other instance whatever, beyond those I have mentioned, where the boys sent out during the last twelve years have returned upon the parish."

"Can you state from your observation that this result of the good general conduct of the workhouse boys has been the effect of their more careful education? — I have no doubt whatever that the great care bestowed on their education, and the general attention paid by the minister of our parish, and a number of well-disposed persons, to their moral and religious conduct, has been productive of these effects. The boys in the workhouse are frequently visited by respectable people, who pay attention to their behaviour, and treat them with kindness. I am quite sure that, with such care as may easily be given, the children may be made to turn out well, where, had no care been given, they would in the ninety-nine cases have turned out bad. There is less care taken of the morals of the charity-children than of the children in the workhouse; and if I wanted a boy, I would sooner take a workhouse-boy than a charity-boy, though the workhouse-boy would be at a disadvantage as to parents: their parents, where they have any, being mostly confirmed paupers."

Dr. D'Oyly, the Rector of Lambeth, having been requested to state with accuracy the result of the system of education pursued there, says, "A question was put to me as to the number of persons bred up as children in the Norwood House of Industry, who afterwards return on the parish as paupers. The result of my inquiry on this head is very satisfactory. I am assured that, independently of those who are permanently disabled from earning a livelihood, a very small portion, not more than a twentieth, if so many, ever become burthensome in after-life to the parish; and this is mainly attributed to the good education which is given in that institution, and the industrious, moral, and religious habits which are there found."

But the most interesting and circumstantial account of the establishment, progress, and effect of a workhouse-school, is given by Mrs. Park, sister-in-law of the lamented African traveller. The account is long, but every paragraph contains an interesting fact or an able deduction. With but few omissions, therefore, we give it as it stands in the Poor Law Report.

"About two years ago, the state of our workhouse at Gravesend attracted my attention, from the state in which I learned that it was during my inquiries respecting Mr. Park's patients, he being then the surgeon of the parish. There were then fifty females in the workhouse; of these twenty-seven were young, stout, active women, who never were employed in doing anything whatever. There were five of these young and able women who were accustomed to go to bed in the forenoon, solely to pass off the time. There was no separation of the sexes during the day, and the most frightful demoralization was the consequence.

There were four old females who did the whole of the work of cooking and cleaning the house. The mistress of the workhouse, who was herself very unfit for the situation, and having no domestic management, was accustomed to send any of the female inmates out to service, receiving herself half the emolument: she took no care where they went to; and when an occasional servant was applied for from any low public-house or any such place, (for no respectable person would then take a pauper,) these girls were sent out. The overseers were equally culpable in giving orders to send out the paupers without any attention as to the places where sent. They usually returned to the house still more corrupt and corrupting, and often pregnant. A woman who is deaf and dumb had four children during her residence in the workhouse. Being an excellent needle-woman, she was let out upon all occasions. She was one of the females who positively refused to work, as she took in work of her own; but since four hours' work was exacted, she has gone to reside with a relation in London, and I understand she makes a good living.

"The younger females, the children, were brought up much in the same way; these were educated by an exceedingly ignorant, ill-conducted man, a pauper, who acted as the parish schoolmaster. These females were brought up in the same school with the boys, and very great disorders prevailed there. I understand that even now, when the ladies leave the house, the girls are returned to the schoolroom among the rude boys. We were petitioned to allow the girls to continue to write with this master; but having observed the improprieties communicated in the form of writing lessons, it was

discontinued, but for the younger, who only formed letters. The girls ought to continue in the room where they work, under the constant observation of the ladies who visit, or of the elder married women. They should sleep in a chamber together, along with one of the most steady matrons: both night and day they should be kept separate from both men and boys; this however is not done.

"The old females were also very ill regulated: I found that they made it a practice to send the children to the public-house for spirits. How they obtained the money was a mystery which I have never been able to penetrate.

"On the whole, the workhouse appeared to me from all I saw and all I could learn, a frightful and increasing source of demoralization to the labouring classes; and of burthen to them in common with the higher classes. Seeing this, I got several ladies to form a committee, and we tendered our services to the churchwardens and the parish officers to educate the children, and to make the young and able-bodied paupers of our own sex work a certain number of hours a day, and conform to industrious and religious habits."

"How was this offer received?—It was ultimately acceded to, but with a great deal of difficulty. They said they did not mind it, but they were quite sure that work could not be found. All the officers evinced a great unwillingness to be interfered with; and, indeed, had it not been for the exertions of the Curate of Milton parish, in conjunction with the churchwardens at that time in office, we should never have succeeded."

"What was your next course of proceeding?—The first object was to bring all the inmates to more industrious habits. Instead of four old persons always doing all the work in the house, our intention was that the requisite number of persons should perform the cooking and other work in turn, so that these young women might learn household work, and form useful domestic habits, instead of bad habits and immorality. But we found that we had so much trouble in carrying any alterations which would affect the arrangements of the master and mistress, that in fact we could do nothing but make the paupers work during the four hours that we, or a portion of the ladies of the committee, were present; and keep them quiet during that period. We could not stop the practice of the master and mistress letting out to hire young female paupers under the circumstances stated, where the master and mistress received half the earnings, although they received good salaries, and although it appeared that they had no right by their contract to any such a source of emolument. The most distressing practice that I have met with, was that of sending out another class of paupers as nurses. It may be observed, that it has been a practice to send for old women to act as nurses, and sit up with sick persons of the labouring classes. The general practice was to send out the worst persons in the house, for which choice no other reason can be assigned than that they were the persons whom the master and mistress were the most desirous of being rid of. These, with very few exceptions, were the most reckless characters, with whom no being whatever ought to be entrusted; but these were the description of nurses who

vere, sent to the cholera hospital. We begged that ve, who, from our attendance, knew these characters, nd could judge of their fitness, might have the con- rol of their going to work; but this was deemed by he churchwardens and overseers as an infringement f their authority. In the first instance, they did ndeed consent, but subsequently the overseers and ther officers began to give orders to the paupers to go ut, and the old practice was re-established. Nothing ltimately was left to us but to direct the labour of he house during the four hours of daily attendance hat we devoted to them."

"What was the nature of the employment with vhich you occupied them?—The elder ones we taught nitting stockings, and the younger females needlework. Before we went to the workhouse they were badly clothed, and some of them almost in a state of rags nd nakedness. We wished to have the whole clothed n one way, with gowns of blue linsey-woolsey, check prons, dark handkerchiefs, and close white caps. After iolent opposition from the mistress of the house and the emales themselves, this was acceded to. Hitherto they ad purchased the most gaudy prints for the females, and ready-made slop shirts for the men in the house, whilst the young women were lying in bed idle. One f the paupers, a girl of eighteen years of age, who re- used to work, was dressed in a dashing print dress of ed and green, with gigot sleeves, and a silk band, a arge golden or gilt buckle, long gilt ear-rings and a lace ap, and abundance of curls. A general order was given hat the hair of the females should be braided, and put under their caps, and no curls or curl-papers seen. We got the whole of the young females clothed in the

manner we designed in two months, during the first year. This was done by their own labour, under the instructions we gave them. The benefit of this was, that whenever they went out of the workhouse they were known and liable to observation, and could not act as they had been accustomed to act when they could not be distinguished. In the next place, the parish saved money. They were thus clothed comfortably for 10*s.* each. After that we procured them needlework, in which we had no difficulty; though we were opposed in the first instance, under the notion that we should injure the National school, where work is taken in. It was supposed also that it would injure industrious poor people in the neighbourhood. But according to the statements of the National School Society, the amount of the labour done was not diminished, although we took work at somewhat lower prices; neither could we ascertain that any industrious people out of the house had been injured by it: we never had any complaints, nor ever heard of one from any industrious people. I believe the fact to be, that a great part of the work we procured was work created, or which would not have been done had it not been taken. But it would have been much better that the work which might be done in wealthy families should be done in the workhouse, that these paupers should be occupied usefully and instructed. The ladies paid great attention to the work, and employed one of the most intelligent and active of the inmates of the house as the general superintendent. The work was remarked for its neatness; no slovenly or indifferent work was permitted to go out; and the committee were so very particular, that

the instruction they received was necessarily much better than that which they would have obtained in the houses of their own parents. One effect of this partial discipline in the house was, that in almost two months about one-half of the workers left. Some of them called themselves widows; others said that they did not come in to work, they merely came in to accommodate themselves until they could get themselves another situation; but they could not remain to work, indeed that they would not; they would sooner take a room and keep themselves when they were out of place, "sooner than put on a dress, indeed, and be made to work." One refractory person said, "The poor were not a going to be oppressed by work." They did not work one moment beyond the four hours during which the persons in authority allowed us to employ them. It had been the practice to have tea-parties in the house, to which the friends of the female inmates were invited. The young persons began to get out the tea-things and make preparations for these parties before the ladies who were instructing them, and who had not themselves dined, had left. But this practice was put an end to."

"Were tea and sugar allowed to them from the poor-rates?—No, I believe they procured it from their own private resources."

"By what means did you enforce the performance of the work? — We had no other means than rewards. We wished to withhold their meals till the required work had been performed, and thus convert the meals into a reward of industry; but we were told by the authorities that we could not by law do this."

"What were the earnings of the females? — They

were on an average about one pound per month for the four hours' work daily of about fifteen persons.* There were 30 shirts, 82 shifts, 20 pairs of stockings and socks, 44 gowns, 60 caps, 60 handkerchiefs, 16 nightcaps, 1 frock, 5 flannel petticoats, 2 tippets and slips, and an entire set of sheets for the whole house, made during the first eighteen months.† But still the mistress of the house was observed to be cutting out gowns for the paupers coming in, and for the children, of the gaudy prints, instead of allowing the visiters to provide as heretofore. But had they not earned one farthing, great good would have been done by keeping away those who were proved capable of providing for themselves; and by finding employment for those who would otherwise have passed their time in vicious idleness. The money earned was divided amongst the workers, with the exception of 2*s.* a week, which was paid to the superintendent. A mark was put against the names of those who were refractory, or who were impertinent, and their money was withheld. In a short time this regulation produced perfect civility and obedience."

"If you had been seconded in your exertions, and been allowed to carry into effect the alterations which you thought desirable, what further effects do you believe, judging from your experience, would have been practicable? — In the first place, we should have had the hours of work at least doubled. I am well convinced that the workhouse might, as regards females,

* In addition to this, a great quantity of work was done for the house.

† The articles named were for the house, independent of one pound a month of work taken in.

be made a school of industry, and a place of wholesome restraint, instead of a school of vice. Whilst no one would come to it under the influence of the inducements afforded by idleness, those who must necessarily come there,—orphans, and the great numbers of young people who have been born on the parish,—might be so instructed as to be made superior servants and good nurses, and superior wives of working men. In the first place, the workhouse affords the means of giving to females instruction in household work and in domestic economy, which at present is their great want, and which so frequently occasions the ruin and misery of labouring men when they take wives from this class. That which is done by the Guardian Society in London, might be done in every workhouse throughout the kingdom. If matrons with proper qualifications were appointed, they might conduct the system, and might obtain the assistance of the ladies of the vicinity. I was told from the outset that ladies could not be got to form a committee, but I found no difficulty whatever in getting a committee of the age and qualifications to command respect. I could have got plenty of committees, if we had taken young ladies; but my objection was, that the paupers would have presumed on their inexperience; and I thought it desirable that the committee should consist of married ladies who were the heads of families. The committee consisted of ten, and two attended each week. I conceived that there would be no difficulty in obtaining a committee of ladies in such a district who could give their attendance one week in five. It was arranged that two should attend, so that one might not be absent, though unexpected

domestic duties might interrupt the attendance of the other. The household work, scouring, cleaning, washing, plain-cooking, needlework, knitting, mending and making up carpets, and economical industry, might under such a system be taught in a much higher degree than they could be learned in a cottage, or in the house of a person of the middle classes. They might also receive superior instruction in another respect; they might be well qualified to act as nurses when sickness occurred in the families of their employers or in their own families. There are always poor people sick in the workhouses, and they might be usefully taught to wait upon the sick people. There are very few females who are ever capable of acting as nurses; in fact, it requires special instruction, of a nature which might be given by the physician who attends the workhouse. The ladies' committee might maintain a very high order of domestic instruction in these places; and the children of misfortune, who are now a prey to every vice, might be made very superior servants, and in every respect superior members of society. This is in fact accomplished by the ladies of the Guardian Society in London. I have myself known several instances where females who have been reclaimed by them from dissolute, wretched states of life, have by their course of instruction made the most exemplary servants. I have been informed that this is now so well known, that no difficulty whatever is found in getting places for servants from the Guardian Society. The whole of the ladies who have acted with me are assured from our own experience of the effects of the very partial change which we have been allowed to make, that the same effects

might be produced with the females in our own and in every other workhouse. The young female whom I before instanced as sitting in the gaudy dress, with gilt ear-rings and a lace cap, and who refused to work, of which indeed she was ignorant, has subsequently been reformed, and by her own solicitation gone as a penitent to the Guardian. She has now in many respects become an excellent workwoman; and I have no doubt, from the instruction she will there receive, that she will become a skilful and an excellent moral servant. This had been so far accomplished before she left us, that one of the ladies of our committee, Mrs. West, offered to take her as a servant; but she preferred going to the Guardian Society, as she preferred getting away from the companions of her former courses. If she had lived in the town as a servant, she must have carried messages, and could not have avoided meeting them."

"What moral or religious instruction was usually given to females in the workhouse before the ladies' committee undertook the performance of their duties? —I am not aware of any religious instruction having been given them, excepting by the occasional charity of gentlemen who went to read to them in an evening."

"What alterations did the ladies' committee propose or effect in that respect? — Every morning, the moment we assembled, we had prayers and read a chapter in the Bible. All the females were collected to prayers; the old and very infirm returned to their own room; the others remained to work. All those who could read, were made to read one chapter of the Bible, and those who could not read were taught. I was confounded by finding, two years ago, how large a

proportion of the persons who came to the workhouse could not read. I was surprised to find about half of the young women, even those who were married, could not read. They also requested the curate, who approved of the ladies' exertions, to give them a lecture once a week, to which he kindly assented, and has accordingly attended every Monday evening."

"What characteristic difference did you find between those adults who could, and those who could not read? — I found that those who could read were persons whom we could instruct more rapidly, and make stronger impressions upon, and whom we could get more readily into habits of industry. I have always remarked that the most ignorant were the most idle. It must, nevertheless, be remarked, that precepts, however forcibly inculcated, will have no effect alone; and that all moral instruction must be based on a continued round of industry. They were very ready to conform to all religious instructions, and very glad to do so, if they conceived it was all that was required of them. Some of the most profligate in the house are noted for their attention to religious exercises. Instruction in reading and writing, and religious exercises, were made a relief from work. Those who had done their scrubbing the first, were permitted to come to their instruction in reading and writing or their religious exercises. This made them work with more alacrity. If the class were large, as it would be for a time, from such a district, it might be worth while to employ, as the superintendent of the house for the females, a person of education and respectability. Such persons as the widows of non-commissioned officers would be extremely glad to accept such

situations; and they might also be made acceptable to the widows of poor clergymen; and it would be cheap to the public in the end to obtain the services of such persons. They would be incapable of the exercise of low cunning and petty jobbing which exist at present.

"With regard to the children, the ladies' committee sent in the following proposals to the parish officers:—

"To the Churchwardens and Overseers of the Parishes of Gravesend and Milton.

"Gentlemen,

"I am desired by the ladies of the committee for the improvement of the morals of the poor in the workhouse, to state, that twelve months having elapsed since the commencement of their exertions, they have (notwithstanding their regret that the whole of their original plans have not been duly enforced, such as that of all paupers wearing the same dresses, &c. &c.) every reason to feel satisfied with the improved condition of those under their charge. The ladies would beg to call your attention to a plan for the improvement of the children of the out-paupers.

"1st. That every person receiving parochial aid shall be ordered to send their children, from the age of six years to fourteen, to the workhouse, from ten until twelve in the morning, and from two until four in the afternoon.

"2nd. That each child shall be furnished with a leaden badge, numbered on the one side, and the letter of the parish on the other; the numbers running from one upwards; so that the ladies in attendance may be enabled to report once in a week to each parish the absentees.

"3rd. That the attendance of these children should be enforced by withholding relief from all parents who do not comply with this regulation.

"4th. In case of sickness, a certificate from the medical gentleman of the parish to be presented.

"5th. If their children are attending National or other schools, a certificate from the master or mistress to that effect must be produced to the parish officers.

"6th. Children attending Sunday schools to continue to do so; and such of them as have never had that advantage, to be sent to that of Milton; it being at present the only parish Sunday school.

"7th. That the school-room of the workhouse should be appropriated to the boys; and that the present master be teacher; the ladies continuing to take the entire management and teaching of the girls.

"The committee, in conclusion, beg to assure the gentlemen in parochial authority, that the above plans and suggestions for the moral improvement of the poor in the parishes of Gravesend and Milton, are not of recent origin, but have long been discussed and entertained; and they confidently hope that the gentlemen in authority will carefully and considerately examine them, and, with all convenient speed, return an answer to their obedient servant,

"MARION PARK, *Secretary.*"

"If a school had been established, a young ladies' committee would have been formed to superintend it. The children of paupers, who are the most neglected, would receive some education; and the regulations would probably detect the frauds of those paupers who had their children in profitable employment

whilst they are receiving relief, on the ground of having large and burthensome families, and being out of work."

"What was the reply made by the parish officers to this application?—No notice whatever was taken of it."

"Has no reason been suggested in any way as to the ground of this neglect, or such refusal to comply with the proposition?—I know of no reason; except the general aversion on the part of those persons to have their authority interfered with. One of the ladies' committee stated, that she had been informed by one of the parochial officers, that they considered the ladies took a great deal too much upon themselves."

In answer to questions with reference to the plans set forth in the evidence of Mr. Thorn, founded upon the practice of putting out pauper children with cottagers, Mrs. Park stated, "that she thought such a practice could not fail to be beneficial as compared with the existing practice, than which nothing could be well worse: but she conceived that a well-regulated workhouse, which should furnish a continued round of domestic industry, would be far more beneficial as regards females, as it would far better qualify them for service. The ladies' committee had found, during their experience on this subject, that they had always to teach almost everything to females who had been educated in cottages; what was learned there being of little use to them as servants. Indeed it must be obvious, that a large establishment, such as that in which the females must be maintained, where there would be such an extent and variety of house-

hold work, would furnish instruction such as could be found in no cottage; and the ladies of the committee, who were the heads of families, must be enabled, from their station, to give superior instruction as to the mode of executing that work. In the cottage, too, the usual school education of the child would not probably be so well attended to, if at all."

"We, the undersigned members of the Ladies' Committee, who have endeavoured to establish a beneficial system of education in the workhouse of Gravesend and Milton, have perused the evidence given by Mrs. Park, our Secretary, and do concur in the statement of facts and opinions contained therein.

Mrs. Barber.	Mrs. Tippetts.
Mrs. West.	Jane Swinny.
Mrs. Petley.	Mrs. Hindle.
Mrs. H. Styles.	Mrs. Grahame.
Mary Spencer.	Marion Park."

The foregoing shows how much may be effected by an enlightened system of education under the most unfavourable circumstances. We see that, with the worst material to act upon, and thwarted by ignorant parish officers, Mrs. Park and her able and zealous coadjutors, by affording motives to industry, and bringing into operation a few other principles of a sound education, produced a most salutary effect. What might not such instructors accomplish if cordially supported by those who possess the directing power; and if *children* were put under their care instead of persons who have grown up in habits of idleness and improvidence?

Whether improvements, however, may hereafter be ıade in the system of pauper education, (and the esta-ılishment of a central power for the administration f the Poor Laws offers great facilities for this,) the ıcts we have brought forward show, that, with all its ıperfections, much may be and is accomplished, even ın the present plan, except in instances where the ducation of paupers is committed to persons grossly ıcompetent to their task.

INFANT SCHOOLS.

It is generally admitted that the high honour of origin-ıting and first bringing into successful operation this ıportant instrument of human improvement and hap-ıiness is due to Mr. Robert Owen. Dr. Pole, in his no-ice of the rise of infant schools, published in the year 824, states that Mr. Owen's infant schools at New ,anark were in full activity so far back as the year 1816. \ step towards the introduction of infant schools had ertainly been taken by Mr. Fellenberg even before his time; but this does not subtract from Mr. Owen's ıerit, and but little from the originality of his plan. \ll that Mr. Fellenberg had done, according to Dr. 'ole, was to make a provision for having the children f his agricultural labourers taken care of whilst their ıarents were at work.

Of the number and actual condition of the infant chools at present existing in this country no authentic ıccount has appeared. Mr. Wilderspin, well known n connexion with infant schools, says, in a letter we ıave received from him, that their number may be

estimated roughly at about 150 in England, 70 in Scotland, and 50 in Ireland; each school containing on an average about 100 scholars.

According to this estimate there are about 15,000 children in infant schools in this country; a very small number when compared with the whole infant population. The total number of children in England and Wales between the ages of two and seven is about 2,000,000; of these, about 430,000 are in the third year of their age, and about 380,000 in their seventh year; the intermediate numbers gradually decreasing as the age advances. We see, therefore, that there is a great field for the extension of infant schools; though, when we consider that it is not more than about fifteen years since the first was opened in England, we must admit that considerable progress has been made. Hitherto, infant schools have been almost exclusively confined to the poorer classes: we hope that their advantages will speedily be extended to all classes.

Nature and Extent of the Education.—Acquirement, in the ordinary sense of the term, is very properly but little aimed at in our infant schools. The formation of good habits, and the development of the mental and bodily powers of the child, are made, as they ought to be, the principal object. The means for effecting this may not always be sufficient, and the application of those means may not always be judicious. Still, much is accomplished when the *object* is rightly understood.

Plans of Teaching.—It is a fortunate circumstance with respect to infant education, that the institution is of a very recent date. No ancient lumber

obstructed the path of the projectors, either as regards he subjects to be taught or the manner of teaching. The consequence is that the principle of utility and he connexion between cause and effect have been ept in view much more than we should expect if we ooked only at the system of education in general use or children of more advanced age. One advantage, ssential to infant education, consists in the ready est it affords of good or bad management. A boy welve or fifteen years old, may be frightened and logged into silence and dulness; and may be acquiring habits of deception, cruelty, selfishness, and dishonesty, without these habits at once appearing, at east in their full force: and the parent hearing his on repeat his Greek verbs with a certain degree of olubility, and finding that his boy brings home with him a good stock of nonsense verses, may think that ll is going on well, and that Tom will one day become he pride and ornament of his family. There can, however, be no such mistake with respect to the way n which an infant is going on. All that is good or bad in him rises at once to the surface. The mistaken treatment of one hour is felt in its consequences in the next; and an uncontrollable fit of crying is but one token among many, which the poor teacher will receive, of any foolish treatment to which he may have subjected the child. This ready power of punishing unskilful teachers, with which Nature has furnished the child, is sure to drive most such teachers from infant schools: for where is the man that would not be driven mad in a month if he were surrounded six hours a day by a hundred children, crying and roaring away in full chorus? In self-defence, there-

fore, if other motives were wanting, the teacher *must* make his lessons entertaining and attractive, and in so doing he is almost certain to make them useful and instructive. If he begin to talk on subjects which do not interest the child, and to use words and phrases which the child does not comprehend, it is certain that the lessons will not be productive of the slightest benefit, and it is therefore fortunate that the child's attention will soon be withdrawn. If the teacher persist, the dreaded signal of error will soon be given.

Singing has with great propriety been generally introduced into infant schools. It is an excellent exercise, employing as it does at one and the same time the voice, the ear, and the memory. It is, too, very conducive to health, and it is an exercise in which great numbers can join. It is desirable that the verses sung should present vivid and pleasing ideas to the mind, and that the music should be made subordinate to the sense. These points are sometimes overlooked. The various active motions of the body, as clapping the hands, swinging the arms round, &c. which the children are taught to go through simultaneously, are all very good: it is, indeed, difficult to say which is benefited the most, the child's temper or his bodily frame.

In some infant schools a good deal of time is employed in answering questions put by the children, and in ascertaining that the explanations given are understood. This is an excellent exercise, especially if care be taken, whenever it is possible, to have the object which forms the ground-work of inquiry present before the children. We were visiting an infant school some time ago, when a question was asked

bout a carpenter's plane; and it struck us how much ıore interesting and instructive the explanation would ave been, had a real plane been produced, and the ıanner and object of its use experimentally shown. he more very young children can have to do with hings instead of words the better. Books and their ontents are of very doubtful value for infants, except or the nice prints to be found in some of them.

To carry into full operation the rule of letting a hild see every object that is spoken of, a great colection of articles would be necessary; and this and ther advantages of the kind cannot be hoped for ntil infant schools are carried on upon a much larger cale than at present.

Mr. Wilderspin says there is a great want of a odel infant school: a training establishment is lso a desideratum. Here, again, we see the importnce of combined and concentrated efforts.

COST OF INFANT EDUCATION.

The average cost has been estimated at 15*s.* a ead per annum; but we are inclined to think that his estimate is below the real expense. The average ost at three infant schools with which we are acuainted is rather more than 1*l.* per annum: this um, however, includes the payments by the parents f the children, which in two of the schools are at the ate of 2*d.* per week, or 8*s.* a year for each child; a the other instance the parent pays 1*d.* per week, r 4*s.* a year.

Effects of Infant Education.—The evidence n this head is at present scanty, and somewhat con-

tradictory. That infant schools, however, have in all instances been the means of preventing great evils, admits, we think, of little doubt; and we feel satisfied that, whenever the teacher has been well qualified for his task, the school has been productive of much positive good. It appears from the evidence of several persons employed in cotton factories, that a child is often sent to work at a very tender age, because the parent is at a loss how otherwise to dispose of him. Unless the mother stays at home to take care of the child (at a great sacrifice in the income of the family), the little creature must either be locked up or allowed to run about the streets. The danger arising from either of these practices is too obvious to require comment. It may, however, be well to give a few facts. The subjoined are extracted from the works of Mr. Wilderspin and Mr. Goyder, on Infant Education.

The extracts from Mr. Wilderspin's book relate to the habits of crime into which children who wander about the streets are often led:—"It is no small matter of credit with older thieves—(by older thieves, I mean, in the present instance, boys of nine or ten years old)—to have under their tuition two or three pupils. I have seen in my walks as many as seven or eight sallying forth from the alleys in the neighbourhood of Spitalfields, under the command, as it were, of a leader, a boy perhaps not more than nine or ten years old. I have watched their plans; and have noticed that it was usual to send first the youngest boy to attempt the theft,—perhaps the object to be attained was only a bun from the open window of a pastrycook's shop,—if he failed, another was sent, whilst the rest

were lurking at the corner of some court, ready to start in case their companion was detected. And I have sometimes witnessed, that after all the rest had failed, either from the want of dexterity, or from the too great vigilance of the shopkeeper, the boy who acted as leader had started out, and by a display of superior dexterity, would have carried off the object, had it not happened that some one was thus purposely watching his conduct. When detected, if an old offender, he will either look you in the face with the greatest effrontery and an expression of defiance, or he will feign to cry, and tell you he was hungry, has no father or mother, &c.; though frequently, on further inquiry, I have found the whole story to be false.

"Having had occasion to walk through Shoreditch some time since, I saw a number of persons collected together round a little boy, who, it appeared, had stolen a brass weight from the shop of a grocer. The account the shopman gave was as follows:—He stated, that three boys came into the shop for half an ounce of candied horehound, and that while he was getting down the glass which contained it, one of the boys contrived to purloin the weight in question. Having some suspicion of the boys, from the circumstance of having recently lost a number of brass weights, he kept his eyes upon them, when he saw one of them put his hand into a box that was on the counter, take out the largest weight, and then run out of the shop followed by the other two boys. The boy who stole it slipped the weight into the hand of one of the others; but the shopman, having observed the manœuvre, followed the boy who had the weight, who, being the youngest of the three, could not run very

fast; he, finding himself closely pursued, threw away the weight into the road, and when he was taken, declared it was not he who took it. The man wished to take the child back to the shop, in order that his master might do with him as he thought proper; but the bystanders, with a charitable zeal which evinced little knowledge, prevented him: one man in particular seemed to interest himself much in the boy's behalf, stating that he knew the child very well, and that he had neither father nor mother. The child immediately took up the plea, said he had no father or mother, adding to it that he had had no victuals all day. The individual before-mentioned then gave him 1*d.*, and his example was followed by many more, till I think the boy obtained nearly 1*s.* I put several questions to the child, but was checked by this fellow, who told me, that, as I had given the child nothing I had no right to ask so many questions; and, after a great deal of abuse, ended by telling me, that if I did not "take myself off," he would "give me something for myself." Feeling a great desire to sift further into this mystery, I feigned to withdraw, but kept my eye upon the boy, and followed him for nearly two hours, until I saw him join two other boys, one of whom I had not seen before, and who had a bag with something very heavy in it, which I have every reason to believe were weights or something which they had obtained in a similar manner. Wishing to ascertain the fact, I approached the boys, but they no sooner perceived me, than the little fellow who had been the principal actor in the affair called out "Nose, nose!" a signal-word, no doubt, agreed upon amongst them, when they all ran down some obscure alleys. I followed, but was

knocked down, as if by accident, by two ill-looking fellows, who continued to detain me with apologies till the boys had got safely away. I have little doubt that this was an instance of that organized system of depredation of which I have before spoken; and that the man who took so active a part at the first was at the bottom of the business,—was, in fact, the tutor and employer of the predaceous urchins. His activity in preventing the boy from being taken back to the shop; his anxiety to promote a subscription for the boy; and lastly, his threat of personal violence if I interfered in the matter, by questioning the child,—all these circumstances confirm me in this opinion."

Mr. Goyder, after speaking, like Mr. Wilderspin, of the perils to which children are exposed, who are allowed to wander about the streets, goes on as follows:—

"Still worse, if possible, is the situation of those children who are shut up during the absence of their parents in close, gloomy, and unwholesome apartments, breathing for hours together an impure and tainted atmosphere, besides being subjected to accidents and dangers of the most serious nature. It would harrow up the feelings of the reader were I to detail every circumstance that has come to my knowledge of this description; but a finished picture of these miseries must not agonize the feelings of my hearers. I shall, therefore, content myself with relating a few of the less revolting, though equally pernicious effects, to which the children of the poor are exposed, pledging myself for the truth of what I may relate.

"Two little children being locked up in a room together, sought in vain for some outlet whereby they

might escape and join their playfellows in the street. At length they proposed to jump out at the window. The first effected it, and was killed on the spot; the second followed, but in consequence of falling on the dead body of its companion, its life was preserved, although both its thighs were broken, and much serious injury besides sustained. Three children, the eldest nine years of age, the youngest three, were locked up in a similar manner; the youngest cried for a pair of scissors, which being given it, it inflicted a shocking wound in its throat which caused its death.

"A child locked up in a room for a short time, went to play with a saucepan of boiling water, on the fire, which in a short time he pulled down, and dreadfully scalded himself; and although his life was preserved, he has ever since been subject to fits in consequence of the fright.

"Out of an average of sixteen years, sixty-five children have been annually sent to the Bristol Infirmary* with dreadful burns and scalds; another consequence of being locked up.

"It is a common practice among the poor people to suffer their children to drink from the spout of a tea-kettle: this is a very dangerous practice. A child who came to the infant school at Bristol was accustomed to this, and one day going as usual to drink, the kettle was full of boiling water; giving the kettle a sudden jerk, he ejected a large quantity of the boiling water down his throat, and was so dreadfully scalded that he expired in a few hours in the most excruciating agony.

* The author superintended the Bristol Infant School four years and a half.

"In most of the instances above enumerated, the parents have resorted to locking up their children in order to preserve them from the contaminating influence of street associations."—*Goyder's Treatise on Infant Schools, pages* 6 and 7.

Other instances of the dreadful consequences which sometimes result from the practice to which the poor are often driven of locking up their children have come to our own immediate knowledge, but we forbear adding to Mr. Goyder's distressing enumeration. Appalling, however, as are these calamities, they are not, perhaps, so frequent as to be justly considered the main part of the mischief. The misery of long continued solitude, its benumbing effects on the intellect, and its tendency to deprave the heart,—these are the most formidable results; for they must extend in a greater or less degree to every one of the thousands of poor children who are thus daily immured.

We remember the effect produced upon our feelings by an account of the life passed by some of the children in the Cornish mines. It did not occur to us, however, when reading that appalling narrative, how nearly the condition of thousands of children whose parents are engaged in the ordinary business of life resembles theirs.—Our traveller describes himself as riding through a long and narrow passage on one of the carriages for conveying the ore. The only light received was from a lamp fastened to the carriage, and the carriage itself moved silently along, drawn by cords attached to the steam-engine. Here and there was a door across the passage to regulate the current of air by which the mine is ventilated. The traveller was surprised at observing the regularity with which these

doors opened at their approach and closed after them, there being no apparent means for accomplishing this. On inquiry, he found that a poor child was stationed at each door, whose sole business it was to open and shut the door, and whose only relief from total darkness and solitude was the occasional appearance of a carriage with its solitary lamp.

But to change the picture. The following evidence given by Mr. Henry Ashworth, one of the proprietors of the large cotton works at Bolton, Lancashire, mentioned in our section on factory schools, shows that infant schools are not confined in their effects to the removal of crying evils like those we have spoken of, but that they have already been made productive of much positive good:—

"From what I have seen of the early operation of that influence, [the influence of the mother,] I consider that infant schools are a most important step to the improvement of our manufacturing population, when they are under the control of females, as these are better qualified to convey correct feelings to the infant mind than men are for children of the same age. In the infant school, we are sure that children learn to be obedient and orderly, and to restrain their passions; we are sure that in a large proportion of cases it is not so at their own homes."

"What number of children have you at the infant schools which you have instituted?—At two schools connected with our works, and at another school supported by ourselves and others jointly, we have altogether about 150 children, from three to nine years of age."

"How long have these schools been in operation?

—The first, almost six or seven years; the two others, within the last three years."

"Have you seen enough of the character of those who have passed through these schools to enable you to judge of their practical effects?—Yes; I have made observations upon them."

"What are their effects?—I may most shortly state them, by mentioning the fact, that the workmen, even the most rude and uneducated amongst them, who do not make very nice distinctions, always prefer a child who has been educated at an infant school, as those children are most obedient and docile. Such children are bespoken beforehand by the workmen, who engage their own piecers. This is the most pointed way in which the effects of infant schools have been already manifested: other characteristics will doubtless appear as the children grow up."—*Appendix to Poor Law Report (Education)*, pp. 11 and 12.

The following evidence, extracted from Mr. Dunn's examination before the Education Committee, is not so satisfactory:—

"Are you at all conversant with infant schools?—I generally visit them when I have an opportunity."

"Do you find that the pupils who come to you, who have gone through an infant school education, are better adapted to receive your education than other children?—Certainly better prepared, but not to the extent that we once hoped. We find infant school tuition is so much an amusement, that the children are not willing at first to work, or to make a serious business of their studies. The number of competent infant school teachers is also very limited. There is no society to which any one can apply for teachers;

the consequence is, that masters and mistresses of infant schools have been generally recommended by other masters and mistresses, and sometimes from inferior motives."

"But you conceive that very important instruction might be conveyed; that it is very important training that might be gone through in the infant schools?—I think that it might be; but I think that in many cases infant schools have been made mere toys, with which the public have been pleased."

"As far as your superior experience has gone of individual cases that have come to your knowledge, do you find their minds better prepared for the reception of knowledge?—Decidedly, when they have been to good infant schools: but the infant schools really worth the name are comparatively few. It is very easy to open an infant school, and to introduce certain amusements for the children, but it is not easy to obtain a teacher who will laboriously instruct them."

"Do you speak from a large experience of infant schools, or is that limited?—In a great many cases the state of infant schools has been brought under our notice. Where we get a child from a well regulated infant school, then it is of great advantage; but (I repeat it) the number of well regulated infant schools is small."

Report of the Education Committee, page 26.

In an infant school the importance of having a master and mistress really qualified for their task is greater, if possible, than in a school for older children; since books and other extraneous assistance are here of little avail. No wonder then, that in the absence of any provision for educating masters and mistresses of

ıfant schools, incompetent persons should sometimes e employed, and the results prove unsatisfactory. ;ven, however, where no important acquisitions have een made—where the children have been simply mused and kept safe, we are of opinion that much as been effected; to have averted great moral and hysical evil is in itself a great good.

The Rev. William Wilson, Rector of Walthamstow, nd founder of an infant school in that parish, (one of he first that was opened in England,) insists very much, ı his evidence before the Education Committee, on the 'ant of a training establishment for masters and mis-resses. In all instances, however, that have come to is knowledge, at least *some* amount of good has been ffected by an infant school; and where there has een an efficient master, the effect produced has been ighly beneficial. We extract from Mr. Wilson's evi-ence:—

"If you had heard that some of the officers of the reat schools and societies had spoken, on the whole, ather unfavourably of the practical effects of infant chools, judging from your experience, would that sur-rise you?—Not at all; because I consider it depends ıuch upon circumstances. I should expect the result) be doubtful, if I had an inefficient master; but that oes not affect the question of the excellence of the ystem."

"You would explain that by the very frequent inade-uacy of the master?—I do not know instances where ıey are wholly ineffectual. My own experience here nd in other parts is quite to the contrary. The claim of he system to our approbation rests chiefly on its ccordance with the better tendencies of our na-

ture. It makes use of the pleasurable emotions of early life in forming good moral habits, and conveying instruction. I have had correspondence with persons residing in savage countries, where this system has been introduced, and its beneficial effect is very strongly seen there, where there is nothing but the natural tendencies to work upon."

"If such an opinion were just, it could be only on account of the inadequacy of the master?—Certainly; my own experience would bear that out."

* * * * *

"Do you not find the manners of the children a good deal improved in your parish by infant schools?—Indeed I do, very manifestly."

Education Report, pages 168. 173.

Mr. Trimmer, of Brentford, who was examined by the Education Committee, and who appears to have paid great attention to education for more than forty years, on being asked whether he approved of infant schools as a preparation for other schools, replied that he did; observing at the same time, that he was not an early convert to them, but that he had become one from seeing them in practice. Other questions to Mr. Trimmer elicited the following answers:—

"From what motive have you changed your mind on the subject of infant schools?—My objection was the separating children at that early age from their parents; the advantages I have seen: the very great order and care and pains taken by their parents to send them neat and tidy to those schools, and the degree to which they have learned obedience in those schools, has convinced me that they are beneficial."

"You said you had originally an objection to separate the child from the parent; do you think any diminution in the sense of duty takes place in the parent in consequence?—That was my fear; but on deeper consideration of it, I have given up that idea."

"You think that the parents do not in consequence consider themselves relieved from the discharge of their duty?—No; they are not tired with them the whole day, and they can enjoy their society in the evening."—*Education Report, page* 218.

The Bishop of London, in his evidence, bears witness also to the good effect of infant schools, as a preparation for other schools:—

"Is it not the case, that children who have been educated in infant schools, have a greater facility of reading than children of the same age who have not?—Yes; they come to the National schools already able to read; they have a greater facility of reading, and a greater facility of paying attention to anything. I have been making inquiries lately as to the effect of infant schools upon the scholars who are drafted into the National schools, and they say they learn more quickly and are better behaved: the only difficulty arises from this, that in infant schools an important feature is the bodily exercise of the scholars, and the combining a sort of mechanical exertion with the process of learning. In the National schools, the children rather miss that excitement: but, upon the whole, there cannot be any doubt that infant schools are an important preparation."

The following is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Smart, Vestry Clerk of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate:—

"What do you find is the operation of other schools in your parish?—Very good. The number of children at the infant and other schools has greatly increased; and I believe that on the whole the juvenile portion of the population has been much improved in character by them. Of those young people who come to the parish for relief, the persons who are educated, or who have been educated in the parochial schools, have no proportion to the rest."

"Do you find the infant schools serviceable in enabling the mothers of the working class to work more, and maintain themselves better?—That is my opinion. They are enabled to go out to work; and if there were no such schools, they would be compelled to attend to their children, and would more frequently apply to the parish. I conclude this to be the case, from the constant declarations of those mothers who have children, and are not able to send them to school. They say they must have assistance from the parish, on account of having to attend to their children. There are many of the families who reside out of the parish, at too great a distance for their infant children to come to the parish school."

"From the whole of your observation, do you consider the general establishment of infant and other schools a matter of economy, viewing their operation only with relation to parish rates and the progress of pauperism?—I have no doubt whatever of it; that their effects are immediately economical, merely in a pounds, shillings, and pence point of view; for I am convinced that, great as the amount of pauperism now is, the claims upon the parish funds would be much greater but for the operation of these schools: ulti-

nately their effect will be more considerable in pre-enting the extension of pauperism."

Appendix (a) to Poor Law Report, page 248. A.

Mr. Chadwick gives some striking facts that fell nder his observation connected with infant schools; nd, as usual, accompanies his statement with excel-ent deductions:—

"In the course of my proceedings under the com-nission, I have visited the infant schools at Kingsbury, Berks, and several other places. In some instances he existence of an infant school was suggested to the asual observation by the fact of there being few or o ragged, dirty, and squalling miserable children to e seen running about the lanes and residences of the abouring classes. I found the infants in the schools n a state of cleanliness, and invariably displaying nost delightful cheerfulness. There were none of the cenes of quarrelling and fighting between the young hildren observable in the streets,—occurrences which re often the evident preludes to similar scenes be-ween the parents. A considerable proportion of the ittle scholars were engaged in learning to sew. I had o opportunity of entering into the details of their uition; though the important bearing of these bene-icent institutions upon the subject matter of the Committee, would, perhaps, have warranted me in loing so, had my time permitted. I venture, how-ever, to observe, that if by these schools no other mmediate object is obtained than that of taking these hildren out of the streets, and keeping them under ne superintending eye, in the comparatively high tate of personal comfort and cheerfulness in which always found them, enough would be obtained to

recommend their universal adoption. The schoolmistresses were probably as capable persons as any whom the funds available would enable the patrons of these schools to procure; but I venture further to observe, that the educated and accomplished females of the wealthier classes, who have leisure, and who frequently occupy themselves in works of charity, would confer the highest service on the poor by superintending the management of these schools, and by rendering daily active aid in the education of the children."

Appendix (a) to Poor Law Report, page 264. A.

Of the grateful and affectionate feelings often inspired in children of the tenderest age, Mr. Wilderspin gives a touching account in describing the illness and death of his wife, who had always been his fellow-labourer in the cause of infant education.

"It is due to one who is departed to state, that my wife, endowed with mental powers and energy of character of no ordinary kind, had most ably seconded my endeavours for the formation of the plan, and constantly urged me to do what was practicable abroad, and to confide in her management at home. The burden she thus solicited was great; and that one female should be able to superintend 200 infants for months together, with no aid except that of a daughter, then a child, and, in addition to this, to explain the system to visiters coming from morning till night, may seem incredible; but all this she actually accomplished. Frequently has she been occupied from nine in the morning until five in the afternoon, without any relief or refreshment. Visiters often arrived at twelve o'clock, after a journey of ten or twenty miles, when she would cheerfully direct the children (sometimes

amounting to fifty or sixty) who dined in the school, to go through their various exercises; and thus relinquish the only rest that could be enjoyed in the midst of her arduous labours. These, at length, undermined her constitution, and aware that her end was approaching, she intimated this to her infant charge. Their replies discovered their warm affection: 'We won't part with you;—We can't let you go;—We love you dearly!' was often heard. When she told them of her exhaustion from so much talking and singing, some entreated that she would not work so hard; others promised to nurse her; and, when she was confined to her own room, many brought oranges and all the little presents they could command. Indeed, in the whole course of my observation, I never met with ingratitude from children under six years of age; and how much they may be acted upon by love, those to whom reference is made amply proved. Many had come to us to *wean*, and *before they could speak*, and were now our head scholars;—these, in common with others, were most kindly solicitous about their governess when she did not appear in the school as before; and, as soon as they heard she was confined to her bed, the little monitors begged permission to see her. The request was granted. On going up stairs I heard them say 'Hush! hush! don't make any noise.' At the desire of one of their leaders, their shoes had been taken off, and we reached the room before the nurse was aware of our approach. I marked their anxious countenances as they gazed on their altered teacher, but did not speak, when she raised herself and addressed them on her removal from this world so simply and pathetically that all were in tears. On their return they

told the rest of the little scholars that the governess was dying; and when they went out to play they might be heard saying, *without this being urged upon them*, 'Hush! hush! Think of poor governess; don't let us count out loud in swinging, but only whisper;' and this was regularly done every day."

We shall conclude our remarks on the present state of infant schools in this country, with a notice of a very well conducted infant school in Quaker-street, Spitalfields, which we have lately visited.

The number of scholars averages 150 in summer and 100 in winter; and their ages vary from two to eight years. There is a charge of a penny per week for each child. This charge, Mr. Brown, the master of the school, believes to have the effect of deterring many parents from sending their children: such is the poverty of the district, and so great, we may add, is the moral degradation which generally accompanies extreme poverty. The regularity of the attendance of such as do come, has, however, increased since the charge was first made. At a rough estimate, it appears that one-sixth part of the infant population in the neighbourhood are sent to this school.

Such of the children as have steady respectable parents generally stay about two years. The continuance of the others is very variable, sometimes not more than a few weeks. The children are in school six hours each day—namely, from nine to twelve, and from two to five. There are, however, frequent intervals of a few minutes when the children run out into a small open court which serves as a play-ground. The afternoon, too, of Saturday is a holiday.

We reached the school some minutes before the

roper time for assembling. Most of the children, owever, had arrived, and they were playing very ıerrily in their open court. Mrs. Brown, who assists ı the management of the school, was with them. ome of the children were swinging, surrounded by a rowd of little performers, who were marking the time ıy singing; the burden of the song being the multi-ılication-table. While standing by this innocent and ıappy group, we observed a piece of broken platter fly hrough the air, and very nearly strike the head of one f the children. It had been flung over the wall of an djoining yard; and upon inquiry we found that their ırutal neighbours frequently greeted them in this ray.

When the bell rang, all the children ran (apparently rith the greatest goodwill) into school. Having ranged hemselves in order round the room, the master and mis-ress went in different directions to examine them, and ee that every one had clean hands. Some were taken ut to wash their hands, while those who were particu-arly clean and neat, were honoured by being allowed o accompany their master or mistress in their proces-ion. This business being ended, the school exercises egan. The first was called a lesson in spelling. Had t been so in fact, the task would probably have proved s irksome as it must necessarily have been useless. n truth, however, it was an exercise in general know-edge. A little fellow, with a list of words in his ıand, mounted a box, dignified with the name of ros-rum, and spelled one of the words aloud, as *baker*. This ras followed by a number of questions, as—What loes the baker do? What is the place called where he bread is baked? What is bread made of? &c.

Any child, or any number together, being allowed to answer, the interest of all was kept alive. When a number of words had been taken in this way, a new exercise was called for. This, like several others that followed it, was very properly arranged, rather for the agreeable occupation of the children, and the development of their physical powers, than with any view to the communication of what is ordinarily called knowledge; the latter was at least made quite a secondary object. The proceeding would have sadly scandalized a governess of the old school; many a time, when the children and ourselves were in the highest glee, her fingers would have itched to grasp the rod. One of the most popular of these divertisements consisted in rudely imitating the motions of the different tribes of the brute creation: the birds flew, the beasts ran, the insects crawled; the performance elicited much arch humour, and the merriment was quite infectious; the last manœuvre of the game brought the little creatures into one joyous group, in the middle of the room, and in the roar of laughter which burst forth, we confess we heartily joined.

But the use of all this?—Much, if it only produced the enjoyment we witnessed; more, if it aided in preserving the temper from the cankering effect of sloth, or the evils that follow contention. But there were other ends to be answered, which probably would not suggest themselves to our readers, and of which the bare idea never crossed our mind until we visited the school in the winter: we found, then, that the *vital warmth* had to be maintained. The school-room is lofty, and without ceiling; and the funds of the institution are not sufficient to provide either for an ade-

quate supply of fuel, or a complete repair of the windows; and though the visiters' seat which we occupied is one of the warmest, and though in our thermometer the comfort point is not marked very high, yet, after a stay of two or three hours, our thoughts began to turn towards Captain Ross and the North-west Passage. We heard no complaint from the children, and we hope that their activity preserves them, at least in great measure, from the extreme of a sensation which to infancy is so full of present pain and danger for the future. And yet, when we contrasted our own warm clothing with the half-nakedness of some of the little pupils; and when we heard, as we did with a shudder, that certain of their number, whose parents were gin-drinkers, not unfrequently came to school without having had a morsel for breakfast; and when we gazed at the shrunken limbs and hollow cheeks of two little brothers whose case the master had lamented as particularly distressing,—we could not but consider the absence of complaint as a wonderful instance either of patience, or of the benumbing effect of continued suffering; and we looked with increased admiration on plans which had thus reared up cheerfulness in the midst of misery.

After a variety of other exercises, singing began, and was carried on with great spirit; the very least of the infantile group singing occasionally for a bar or two, and imitating, as well as he could, the motions of the arms and body by which the words are sometimes accompanied.

Before leaving, we offered to tell the children a story, in order that we might have an opportunity of taking them upon ground which must be new to them. The

offer was gladly accepted; and the children were marshalled in a gallery which rises from the floor at one end of the room. We found an attentive audience; and we were pleased with the questions they put when the story was ended, and the answers they returned to our own questions.

On the whole, we cannot but look on this school as reflecting great credit on all connected with it; on Mr. Joseph Wilson, by whose munificent benevolence it is supported, and on Mr. Brown, the kind and intelligent master by whom it is conducted. Our favourite test of crying or no crying, showed that things were in a good state. We can safely say that we have seldom passed an equal amount of time in the same room with half a dozen children, placed in ordinary circumstances, whatever may be their rank in society, without hearing more crying and wrangling than we heard among the 150 children who were assembled in this infant school.

We inquired as usual into the effects produced by the school, so far as chance had brought facts to the knowledge of the master. Mr. Brown said he never heard of an instance of a child who had passed through the school afterwards appearing before a magistrate on any charge; though, as the school has been open more than fourteen years, many of the children must long since have reached the age at which crime too often begins. The manners of the people in the district have, it appears, become much more civilized, or rather much less barbarous, than they were, notwithstanding the affair of the broken platter. Ten years ago, Mr. Brown says, robberies were frequent, and passengers were constantly exposed to insult. It was no

uncommon thing, too, for persons to be thrown at as they walked along. Passengers are still subject to annoyances, but these are of a less outrageous kind than formerly. On a rainy day, for instance, a number of loobies will sometimes plant themselves upon the causeway, so as to leave passengers the pleasant alternative of the horse-road and the kennel.

Burglaries, we presume, have given way to the less formidable and more genteel practice of picking pockets; for we ourselves left the district freed of the incumbrance of a silk handkerchief. We must not, however, expect people to get from barbarism to civilization at a hop, stride, and jump: and we are free to admit that there is a wide difference between a housebreaker and a pickpocket; and between having one's eye knocked out by a stone, and being compelled to walk through a little mud.

We do not for a moment suppose that the improvement which has taken place is wholly attributable to the infant schools, or indeed to education in any other form; though we have no doubt that to such causes much of it may be traced. We should assign no small portion of the change to the establishment of a comparatively efficient police; though many more officers are wanted in this district than are at present to be seen in it. We should think that a few might be spared from the great corps always to be found at the West End.

One instance, of a very pleasing kind, had come to the master's knowledge of very meritorious conduct on the part of a child who had been brought up at the school. A charitable lady hearing that a poor woman in the neighbourhood was very ill, went to visit her;

and, on inquiry, learnt that during the whole time of her illness she had been supported and nursed by her son, a lad of nine years of age. By dint of great exertions the poor fellow contrived to earn enough by day to support both his mother and himself, and during the night he often broke in upon the rest of which he stood so much in need, that he might perform the duties of a nurse. This admirable boy had been educated at the infant school in Quaker-street.

Mr. Brown is convinced that the general effects of the school would be much greater were it not for the outward influences to which the children are exposed. At home they often witness scenes of drunkenness and quarrelling; in the streets they mingle with bad associates. It would be a great advantage if the children could be removed to some place in the country, where they could breathe pure air, see the fresh face of nature, and have plenty of room to exercise their limbs; and where, best of all, the good implanted in their hearts would be allowed to take firm root. The cost of maintaining an infant is so trifling (especially when large numbers are brought up together) compared with the injury to society which a bad member will cause, and the amount of property he will waste, that we cannot but strongly hope that some plan such as we have hinted at will ere long come into operation. The probability is, that in the article of gin alone the whole cost of the child's maintenance would be saved; and grown up to man's estate, with a sound constitution, a clear intellect, and economical habits, the quondam child, by his industry, sobriety, love of order, and zeal for the general good, would well repay society for all the cost incurred on his account.

ADULT SCHOOLS.

We cannot succeed in obtaining much statistical information respecting adult schools. A society existed in London eight or ten years ago for their promotion; but this society has, we regret to say, died away. Another society with similar objects, which was founded more than twenty years since at Bristol, still continues; though, judging from the smallness of its income (which is less than 50*l.* a year), we fear that it must be in a precarious state. The society is denominated "The Bristol Society for teaching the Adult Poor to read the Holy Scriptures." It appears by the report published last year (1834) that there are no fewer than 36 schools under its superintendence, containing altogether 408 men and 268 women. Since the formation of the society 13,000 persons have been received into the schools, though not more than 3,300, or about one in four, appear to have persevered long enough to have become able to read.

The number of adult schools at Bristol, however, must not be taken as a sample of the extent to which the plan has been adopted generally. In this particular, Bristol is much ahead of other towns; although the general state of education there appears to be very low. The superiority referred to is probably owing, in great measure, to the circumstance that Bristol was the first place in England at which the idea of giving elementary instruction to adults was started and brought into operation. This was in the year 1812; and the lead in adult education thus obtained has been preserved ever since. A year previous to that time,

an adult school had been opened in North Wales, by the Rev. Thomas Charles, the clergyman of Bala, Merionethshire; and this, we believe, was the first school of the kind ever established.

Dr. Pole, in his "History of the Origin and Progress of Adult Schools," speaks in the following well-merited terms of the individual who had the honour of founding adult schools at Bristol:

"The successful exertions of William Smith have proved him to be a well-wisher to his country and to mankind at large; and strikingly evince to us, that neither an humble station in life nor the want of an extended education precludes the sincere Christian from important usefulness to his fellow-creatures. This estimable man, who, through Divine Providence, has been made so great a blessing to the indigent of society, occupies a rank in life no higher than that of a doorkeeper of a dissenting chapel in this city, for a salary of eighteen shillings per week; out of which he pays three shillings to have a part of his work done by another person, for the purpose of setting himself more at liberty to perform the duties dictated by that Christian philanthropy which animates his heart, and guides his footsteps to the haunts of sorrow, the abodes of sickness and of want. This is the person who collected the learners, engaged the teachers, and opened the two first schools in England for instructing adults exclusively, in borrowed rooms and with borrowed books."

The following extract is from a letter we have received from Dr. Ball of Bristol, who takes as lively an interest in all that relates to adult schools, as was manifested by his predecessor the late Dr. Pole.

"One of the secretaries, an intelligent person, informs me that great reluctance prevails amongst the adults to come to the schools, from a false notion of degradation by discovering their ignorance; and that many times the number now under tuition are to be found in this city totally unable to read. Himself, in company with a friend, lately visited every house in thirteen streets, nearly all in one parish (the out-parish of St. Philip and Jacob, which contains about 20,000 inhabitants), without missing one house on account of its superior appearance; and he fully believes that in that parish there are nearly 1,800 adults that cannot read. They found many persons who had learned to read when young, but had entirely lost the acquisition by disuse. It is to be feared this cause is too prevalent, and will occasion the continuance of adult schools beyond what might be considered their legitimate period."

We shall close this brief notice of adult schools with a short account of one which was established nearly twenty years ago at Edgbaston, near Birmingham, and with which we are well acquainted. In opening this school, Dr. Johnstone, its founder, gave but one among many proofs of the enlightened philanthropy which has marked the career of his long and valuable life. May the happiness which he must experience from a review of the good that he has effected act as an inducement to others to follow in his footsteps! We give his account, with some additions, as it was drawn up for the "Penny Cyclopedia."

There are now forty members, (more than half the labouring population of the parish,) of all ages from eighteen to seventy. The teaching is confined to

reading and writing; but the advantages of the school are not limited to the amount of direct instruction afforded, there being a well-conducted benefit society connected with the institution. The management both of the school and the benefit society is now entirely in the hands of the men themselves; who now also defray the expenses incurred, as those of books, stationery, &c.; Dr. Johnstone assisting merely with his advice when applied to, and allowing the men the free use of a room in his house. This point (independence of foreign aid) has always been a great object with Dr. Johnstone, and it has been attained only by slow degrees. At length however, the leading members of the school have become quite able to teach their associates; and they do in fact perform this task with zeal and success. The affairs of the benefit society are directed by a committee, chosen by the body of members.

The school assembles once a week—namely, on Sunday evening; the period of instruction being two hours; but the men often go on with their lessons, at home, in the week-days. It is found that a man who is quite ignorant of reading will generally acquire sufficient knowledge to enable him to read with pleasure to himself in the course of six months. It may appear somewhat strange that the men are fonder of writing than of reading: in truth, they show wonderful perseverance in plodding through endless copies, from the large text down to the small hand. In many instances the members of the school have been able to turn their acquirements, small as they are, to very good account. A man who has had the office of permanent overseer of Edgbaston parish for nine years,

and has been subsequently appointed parish-clerk, made the necessary acquirements entirely in the adult school; at his entrance to which he could neither read nor write.—The moral effect of the school has been most satisfactory. During the seventeen years that have elapsed since its opening, there have been only three or four instances of members applying for parochial relief; and these were in the first period of its establishment. One member has even been reclaimed from pauperism. This man, up to the time of his entering the adult school, was a regular burden upon the parish; sometimes living altogether in the workhouse, and at others receiving a supply of fuel, bedding, &c. He soon, however, became independent of assistance of every kind, and has now saved money enough to enable his wife to open a small shop. Another man, who was once in the habit of frequent intoxication, has become perfectly steady and sober.

Such effects as these are of course too powerful to have been produced merely by the instruction in reading and writing afforded in the school, useful and valuable as that instruction may be: they must be ascribed to the working of that social feeling which the founder of the school has laboured to call into active operation, and to the habits of prudence and forethought which the plans on which the school is conducted are calculated to develop.

In his conversations with the members of the little community, and in the addresses which he delivers from time to time, Dr. Johnstone has endeavoured, and with great success, not only to foster a strong social feeling among the men as members of the same class of society, but he has succeeded in awaking just

feelings on their part towards those classes of society which stand above them; showing them how the interests of all are linked together, and how much each class may do to promote the general welfare, while at the same time it is essentially benefiting itself. A striking instance of the good effect produced by these enlightened exertions was afforded at the time of the incendiary fires, in the winter of 1830. On that occasion the members of this adult school formed themselves, spontaneously, into a body for the protection of the property of the neighbouring farmers, in case of attack; but happily no such case appeared.

Such are the admirable results, on a small scale, of education commenced even at a late period of life, but directed by enlightened benevolence. May the operation of such excellent principles of instruction be speedily and widely extended!

EDUCATION OF THE MIDDLE CLASSES.

It is perhaps even more difficult to obtain trustworthy information respecting the kind of education given to the children of the middle classes than to those of the poorer classes, owing to the private nature of most of the institutions in which the latter are brought up. Boarding schools and day schools (to use the ordinary but illogical antithesis), opened on private speculation, are, as is well known, the common medium of instruction for the children of our middle classes. Schools, however, of a new kind have arisen during the last few years, which have already done much, in some of the

larger towns, towards supplanting private schools; and which, from the superior principle on which they are founded, are likely, we think, gradually to supersede private schools altogether; unless, before the change is wholly effected, they in turn are superseded by *national schools* (using the term in its legitimate sense). We speak of proprietary schools, as they are called; that is, schools belonging to a number of persons who have united for the purpose of providing for the education of their children. In these cases, the plan to be pursued and the subjects to be taught are determined by a committee representing the whole body of proprietors; which committee also generally appoints the masters.

Many advantages must necessarily result from this plan of proceeding, provided the committee be composed of able and intelligent men. In a proprietary school, the teacher is not required to act in the multifarious capacity of the conductor and proprietor of a private school; and a thorough examination can be made into the qualifications which he is required to possess. Economy too in the cost of education must be greatly promoted by the arrangement, inasmuch as the school is certain to have its complement of pupils; and it is not therefore necessary to stipulate for a large remuneration on each individual pupil, to counterbalance the risk of having the school only partially filled. It is evident that these advantages of division of labour, a better insight into the character and powers of the instructor, and economy in the cost of education, though considerable in proprietary schools, would all be attainable in a yet higher degree by the country acting as one united body: and we have no

doubt that ultimately the superior principle of national education will become manifest, as applicable to the middle and upper classes, equally with the labouring and poorer classes; and that proprietary schools, and *(à fortiori)* private schools, will give way to schools under the superintendence of a branch of the general government.

The kind of education given to the children of our middle classes, though much superior, in our opinion, to that of the children either of the aristocracy or of the labouring classes, is still very defective. And here again we may remark the want of an advantage which a good system of national education would ensure; namely, the existence of a body of men in whose wisdom, judgment, and integrity parents might place confidence, and who would be in a position for recommending alterations in the objects and plans of education. Under present circumstances, a parent is obliged to be excessively cautious in acceding to such changes. He may be fully aware that the system in common use is not good—nay, that it is decidedly bad; but he may, nevertheless, properly distrust his own judgment in the selection of another. And where must he look for counsel? Unless he be a man of superior discernment, how is he to distinguish between the inflated assertions of the empiric, and the just statements of the sober, enlightened, candid, and skilful practitioner?

In many of our dealings we have to do with articles the true value of which we can readily test. It is in vain that the baker asserts that his oven turns out better loaves than his neighbour's, unless such be really the case; for all false pretensions would soon be detected. It is not so, however, with education. This,

indeed, will compare better with the business of agriculture; where the farmer toils with a view to future benefit, and in so doing often does that which, in its immediate effect, is absolutely pernicious.

If a man, utterly ignorant of agriculture, were to pass by a farm, where draining, fencing, and manuring were going on, he would probably look upon the whole as a scene of profitless confusion; and on reaching the next farm, where with a smiling surface the work of exhaustion was silently proceeding, he would imagine that he was now come to productive and well-managed land. So with education:—the most important labour — that which has for its object the uprooting of bad habits and the formation of good ones—the development of the reasoning powers and the moral feelings— is, by the superficial observer, often looked upon as a mere waste of time. An instance illustrative of this came to our knowledge a short time ago. The father of a child at school, having notified his intention of withdrawing his son, and that without assigning any reason, the master of the school took an opportunity of inquiring what was his ground of complaint. The father replied, that his son was getting on very slowly in arithmetic. In answer to the question whether he had *examined* the boy, the father admitted that *he had not*; but added, that, by his son's account of the proceedings at school, so much time was given, in his case, to moral instruction and moral discipline, that he was sure the boy could not have sufficient time to get on with his "learning." Without attempting to make the worthy parent understand the superior value of *à posteriori* to *à priori* evidence, the master reminded him of the deplorable state of the

child's habits when he entered the school; and observed, that the child's moral reform was of course the first object to attain; and that, in prosecuting this, it was necessary that ordinary school acquirements should for a time, and to a certain extent, give way. The father replied, that moral instruction was "all very well;" but that a person's object in sending his son to school, was to see him "get on with his *education!*"

If instead of representations from the schoolmaster himself, whose powers of remonstrance and advice were paralyzed by the consideration of the pecuniary interest under which he lay, an opinion had been given by a board of directors, standing high in the world's esteem, and untainted by the most distant suspicion of impure motive, this parent would not probably have persisted in thus sacrificing the great interests of his child. In the present state of things, the schoolmaster, like the physician, is every day obliged to stand by and see the fruits of his labour destroyed, and a train laid to the most disastrous results; whilst, from his position, he cannot, without subjecting himself to degrading suspicions, make any effort to prevent the evil.

The great difficulty and length of time required to test the merits of a school by its results, as marked in the character through life of those who pass through it, and the probability that, before this demonstration has appeared, the school will have fallen into decay, are strong arguments against the system of private schools; and do much towards accounting for the slow progress that has been made in the science and art of education. In all the varied processes of manu-

facture, in the construction of roads, in navigation, in chemistry, agriculture, geology, and astronomy, gigantic steps have been taken in the last few hundred years; whilst education, labouring under the difficulties we have pointed out, has crept on at a very slow pace. Indeed, its first principles, such as that every study or occupation ought to receive attention in proportion to its importance, measured by its effects in the promotion of man's virtue, and the augmentation of his happiness; and that every one should give his chief attention to those pursuits for which nature has best qualified him, are as yet scarcely recognized, much less developed in practice. Without regard to the wants of society, or to the endless diversity of disposition, and of mental and physical powers, so manifest in its members, an iron path is laid, into which, however suitable it may be for the chosen few who have the peculiar kind of talent necessary for coping with its difficulties, and the degree of moral strength necessary for withstanding its pernicious tendency, it is absurd,* cruel, and, beyond all calculation, mischievous, to drag the generality of youth.

The acquirement of languages (on their present imperfect and unphilosophical construction) affords, it must be admitted, comparatively little exercise for the nobler powers of the mind; and is for the most part but little connected with the subjects on which the attention of young persons is fixed, and their curiosity excited. Yet languages are made an engrossing sub-

* Most cordially do we agree in the pithy expression of a writer in the Quarterly Review (article on Eton School), that "compulsion will never make a scholar, to whom his scholarship will be of use in after life."

ject of instruction among the middling classes; while, among the upper classes, they occupy almost exclusive attention. Even if we were to admit for a moment the propriety of this selection, we should still question the order in which the pursuit is made. Is it consistent with utility that the chief and earliest attention should be paid to dead languages? and that other foreign languages, while they are postponed to these, should take precedence of our native tongue?

Let us not be misunderstood: we do not wish to exclude the study of foreign languages; on the contrary, we contend that it should be open, with all appliances and means, to such as are fitted for the pursuit. We admit, nay, we maintain, that to a thorough knowledge of the vernacular tongue, to an acquaintance with its powers and its weaknesses, its riches and its poverty, its beauties and its defects, the study of foreign languages is essential; but we cannot allow that it is through their medium that we shall best acquire that practical knowledge of the vernacular tongue, that power of using it with correctness, perspicuity, force, and propriety, in the ordinary concerns of life, which is so desirable for all, but is now attained by so few, even among the educated.

While an acquaintance with foreign languages is thus made the one thing needful, how slight the provision that exists for exercising a child's powers of observation and judgment! What is done towards cultivating the moral feelings, save the propounding of vague, general precepts, which are not carried home to the heart, and which the child may in all probability see broken through every day by those even who advance them? How insufficient the means for calling

into action any latent power the child may possess for the cultivation of those arts or sciences, on which, from his peculiar constitution, his success in life, his respectability, and, indirectly, even his rectitude, may depend? Where will he find the inducement, or even the opportunity, for the pursuit of mechanics, architecture, navigation, sculpture, chemistry, mineralogy, or that one among a dozen other branches of knowledge for which he may have a peculiar aptitude? Where will those noble powers be developed which would fit him for assisting in the administration of justice, or in the general business of government? What is done towards giving him an extended view of the principles on which honourable success may best be insured in manufactures, commerce, or agriculture? or for making him acquainted with the laws of his country, or the reasons on which those laws are based? or for introducing him to a knowledge of the general laws of political and social justice; so that he may be ready as a good subject, and a good man, to help in forwarding the true interests of his country, and of mankind at large; and join in steering clear of those errors which have proved the ruin of nation after nation? Finally: what provision exists for the systematic development of the physical powers of the body? for bringing every nerve and muscle into vigorous action, and yet without subjecting the one to undue excitement, or the other to excessive exertion? And what is done, in our present schools, towards giving a young person a clear insight into the causes of disease; and making him acquainted with the nature and office of the different members of that system, which, from the moment of birth to the hour of death, is affected

in some degree by every motion of the body, and every sensation of the mind?

The objects we have here held up to view, with many others, we believe to be fully attainable by a good system of education; with such readiness and avidity is knowledge received when it has a direct and palpable bearing on our interest and welfare. It is, indeed, a most happy provision of nature,—but it is one which we take an ignorant and perverse pride in disregarding,—that that knowledge which it most imports our happiness to obtain, is at the same time most easy and pleasant of acquisition. Tell the young pupil an anecdote of some child setting its clothes on fire, or falling out of a window, or getting into trouble by telling a falsehood, or losing the affection of its companions by selfishness or tyranny, or of its having made itself ill by excess in eating,—or (to take examples of a more pleasing kind), relate instances in which children have been kind to each other, or have tended upon some poor sick neighbour, or worked for their parents when in distress, or in any way made themselves useful,—address a child in this way, and his attention will be at once engaged; while he is at the same time receiving a valuable lesson in prudence, truth, kindness, industry, or temperance; the benefit of which will be felt every day of his life. But talk to a child of the nominative case of a substantive, or the past participle of a verb—set him to learn *hic, hæc, hoc,* or *propria quæ maribus*—and his mind is soon found wandering, unless forced by hard pressure into the dull track marked out.

We do not mean to say that the time never arrives when questions of grammar should be investigated;

but we do maintain that it is not before thousands and tens of thousands of other matters have been acquired, and not until the child himself possesses the requisite mental appetite, that information on these points should be laid before him.

The very symptom, however, of any kind of knowledge being good and wholesome,—namely, the pleasure with which it is received,—is by many persons looked upon as indicative of futility and worthlessness. "This is not work," they say, "but amusement. These children are as gay as if they were in the play-ground! What can be expected from such a system as this?" Disagreeable instruction must, we are fully aware, be sometimes given, and unpleasant discipline enforced. But these are the exceptions: and it is no more in accordance with the general laws of nature that unpalatable study should be the staple commodity in education, than it is that we should breakfast every day on calomel and magnesia, and dine on rhubarb and bark.

We repeat, then, that the pupil's enjoyment of any particular exercise, is a strong presumptive proof in its favour, both as to the selection of the subject and the mode and manner of instruction; while apathy on the part of the pupil, and still more, positive dislike, is strong evidence either against the correctness of the selection, or the plan of instruction, or both. Yet the school exercises of the middle classes, notwithstanding some late improvements, are in general but little calculated to afford pleasure to the students. The changes that have been made, beneficial as they may be, are for the most part confined to the mode of teaching; and but rarely extend to the more important point of

subjects to be taught. Even as respects mode, however, there is still much to be done; much even in our best conducted schools. For, in the first place, much remains to be discovered on the subject: again, the means of a private school are too limited to allow of the adoption of all, even of those improvements which have been devised; and, lastly, in other instances, where a superior mode is fully recognized, and where means exist for carrying it into effect, the schoolmaster cannot venture to adopt it, for want of a high public sanction to its excellence.

And here we must pause a moment to point out a mistake (one at least in our apprehension), which has been made by many writers on education. Errors, certainly many of them glaring ones, having been discovered in the practice of education, it has been somewhat hastily concluded that the fault was to be attributed in all cases to the ignorance, incapacity, or obstinacy of the teacher. With equal justice might we charge all the follies and vagaries of fashion on the ignorance, incapacity, or obstinacy of tailors or dressmakers. Only suppose that one of these caterers to public caprice were to avoid all those deformities which are accounted beauties,—to discard all those encumbrances which are mistaken for ornaments,—to abandon the false pocket-hole, the supernumerary buttons, and the stiff collar,—or the compressive band, the bustle, and the cumbrous sleeve,—suppose that by long and careful study of the finest models he had deduced the most correct rules of taste, and discovered the most happy compound of beauty and utility, and that his practice was brought into the most rigid accordance with his theory,—what would be the re-

vard of his ingenuity, his labour, and his perseverance? Might we not, *mutatis mutandis*, apply to him he words of the poet,—

> ——— Every toil is past,
> And full perfection is arrived at last.
> When lo! *the adept* to some small corner runs,
> And leaves *show*-rooms to bailiffs and to duns.

Equally unfortunate would be the teacher who should adopt all, or even many, of those improvements for his supposed ignorance of which he is so severely blamed. It is not enough that he is aware of their existence, or even that he is deeply conscious of their value. He may long for the relief which their introduction would occasion him; he may pant for the accelerated progress which would result from their use; but all will not do; the approbation of a few enlightened individuals will avail him but little; and in fine, unless he is ready to risk martyrdom in the cause of education, he must conform at last to the standard of established mediocrity.

On whom, then, is the blame to be thrown? On the parent? Scarcely more than the ugliness of the dress is chargeable on its wearer. The parent and the wearer of dresses have each a certain latitude; the latter may, from all permitted modes of dress, select the one most accordant with taste; and the former may, from all permitted plans of education, select the most rational; but, however strong may be their wishes, and however decided their opinions, both will find it, in most instances, practically impossible to wander far from the beaten track.

Since then we may not enjoy the pleasure, (so dear to all fault-finders,) of laying the blame some-

where, we must be content to point out the remedy. This, if we mistake not, must be furnished by society. A moment's glance at the history of society will be sufficient to discover a constantly advancing process of organization, through which much that formerly depended on voluntary individual exertion, and was therefore for the most part neglected, has had its regular performance secured by becoming an established part of the social economy. This organization has still to be much extended. The assay-mark assures us of the quality of our plate; and is it altogether impossible to establish an assay office for education? Doubtless the task is more difficult; but is not its performance therefore more necessary? Even at present, some sort of test is applied by individuals; and little qualified as most of these must be, are not their decisions at least superior to those of the dice-box? though how inferior to the deliberate opinions of well selected judges? But of this we shall have more to say hereafter.

Mental Education of Females among the Middle Classes.—Public attention has lately been called by several excellent articles in the Journal of Education and elsewhere to this subject; and we trust that enlightened views respecting it have already made considerable progress: and that a silly admiration for Oriental ignorance and mental torpor among females, will soon give way to just appreciation of the superior beauty of a vigorous intellect and a cultivated mind.

Limited, however, as is the present range of female education,—devoid as it is in so many respects of matter to call forth the reasoning and inventive powers,—

little as it is calculated, even in its engrossing province of ornament, to accommodate different tastes and various talent,—it is not during the period passed at school that the inferiority to male education is principally marked. The musical gamut is in our opinion quite as intellectual as the *propria quæ maribus* of the Eton grammar: and the poor girl, who without any taste for natural beauty, love of imitation, or idea of form and colour, is forced to pass hour after hour in trailing her pencil over the leaves of a drawing-book, is not more unprofitably occupied than the boy who is driven through page after page of authors who are treating on subjects in which he takes no interest, —employing a style the beauties of which are entirely lost upon him,—and using a language the acquisition of every word of which is to him an irksome and disgusting task.

It is not, then, in school education that female instruction is so far behind that of males; it is in the time immediately following the period passed at school that the disparity is greatest. It is then that a young man chooses his occupation for life, and sets vigorously to work to qualify himself for its successful pursuit. With a clear object before him, and seeing how the acquirement of various kinds of knowledge will facilitate his progress, he no longer looks upon study as a burden to be avoided by all possible contrivances. Formerly, he was like an obstinate child taking medicine; who does not admit one more drop into his mouth than is forced into it. He now takes willing and copious draughts at the fountain of knowledge; and months do more for him than years under the old régime.

Meantime, how is the young female situated? What objects can she select for attainment, and pursue with steadiness, as the main business of life? The road to wealth and distinction, even by the most quiet and unobtrusive paths, is, for the most part, closed upon her: and what is opened in its stead? On what course of persevering exertion has she any sufficient inducement to enter? It is too evident, that however great and varied may be her talent, she has scarcely any of the ordinary motives for cultivating it. Hence to a great extent the frivolous habits too often contracted or indulged in at this period of life; and hence a want of mental energy and a dearth of knowledge.

Nor is the intercourse with the other sex often such at all to correct this evil. Rarely meeting, except at times of relaxation, our youth naturally avoid such subjects as call for a vigorous exercise of the understanding; and our young countrywomen are led to suppose that the most important questions on which they shall be called upon for an opinion, or on which they must presume to reflect, do not go beyond the merits of the last published novel, the prima donna of the Italian opera, the oratory of some fashionable preacher, or the illustrations to a new batch of annuals. Unhappily, women are not true to their own cause in protesting against this state of mental slavery; — a state to which we doom them, partly from a selfish desire to retain all power in our own hands, partly from an overweening idea of the strength of our own minds, (backed by an unfounded conception that those of females will not bear labour),

and partly from a persistence in the customs and feelings of by-gone ages of ignorance.

Nor, when we reflect for a moment, is it surprising that women who have grown up under this bad system should be opposed to its amendment. Many must feel that their best age for acquiring knowledge has passed, and that in the new career they should soon be outstripped by their juniors.

We have no doubt that to a like motive may be attributed the continuance of many an objectionable system besides the one under consideration. A man who has spent the best portion of his youth in the exclusive study of Latin and Greek, for example, is not likely, unless he be of a superior cast of mind, to look with a friendly eye on proposals for giving more extended education to those who in a few years may become his competitors in the world. This motive may not be present to his mind—he may not even suspect its existence; but that it does exist, and is powerful in its operation, can, we think, admit of no doubt.

To return to female education. Doubtless it is more easy to enlarge upon an evil than to point out the remedy; but we think that among other inquiries as to the cause of the evils we have pointed out, it might be worth while examining whether that rule of modern schools by which the sexes are kept entirely apart has not been carried somewhat too far? Under defective management, indeed, a departure from this rule might be very objectionable: but where active supervision is combined with sound discretion, would such deviation be equally objectionable? Many an instrument which is useless and dangerous when

wielded by an ignorant man, has only to be put into skilful hands to become the means of effecting great good; and perhaps the fear with which we have shunned what we consider the mistake of our forefathers on this point may in a measure have arisen from the badness, not of the plan, but of its administration: any change, however, would have to be made with caution. It is possible that the monastic and nun-like system of education is the less of two evils; though an evil it certainly is.

Without any wish to see girls become boys, or boys girls, we hope we may safely desire that the character of the former had somewhat more of strength, and that of the latter somewhat less of coarseness and disregard of the feelings of others. To us it appears worth considering, whether, with a view to these desirable changes, the established rule might be so far relaxed as to allow boys and girls to associate occasionally in some of those studies which are common to both. We are sometimes inclined to hope that such a measure would be followed by advantages which are at present little expected from such a source. We are sometimes inclined to imagine that much of the feeling which gives rise to impure thoughts and precocious love-fits may be fairly ascribed to the nervous anxiety that exists in parents, guardians, and teachers, on the subject of separation;—an anxiety which is constantly forced on the attention of those concerned, and which endows the proceedings of each sex with a mysterious interest which does not naturally belong to them. We cannot but hope that the occasional presence of their sisters, cousins, and other females of the same rank as their own, would in gene-

ral be an effectual check to the boys in the expression of coarse ideas or rude language; and we should also anticipate a favourable effect on their deportment to each other at times when they are alone. The female character too would, we trust, be benefited by this occasional association. We cannot but think that, by the greater mental energy which would be thus infused, and the interest which would be thus awakened on a variety of important subjects, the young female would be better fitted for the high task she has to perform as man's companion and helpmate,—the sharer of his joys, and his comfort in affliction.

We have already had occasion to refer to the want of infant schools among the middle classes. We sincerely hope this defect will not be allowed to continue. A good system of national education for all classes would, of course, include the introduction of infant schools. But the establishment of such a system may be the work of much time; and every month in the life of an infant is of importance in the formation of its habits. We would, then, respectfully urge upon the middle classes the importance of opening schools for their infant children without delay. With their superior means, they could, at but little sacrifice, provide schools that would indeed make their children be "glad to be alive." Pictures, models, tools, playthings, playground and garden, might all be supplied on a scale which it is hopeless to look for in the infant schools of the poor. Above all, teachers might be engaged, combining in the highest degree all the requisites for the instructors of infants;—lively and prepossessing manners, a strong affection for children, unwearied patience, a thorough acquaintance with human character and the

means by which it is to be influenced, great stores of general knowledge, true eloquence and the power of presenting vivid pictures in narrative; and lastly, a love for the occupation of teaching infants.

It is often urged, we are aware, that it is best to leave the education of an infant in the hands of its mother. We cannot, however, see the propriety of this arrangement, even supposing it could in fact be put in practice; which, beyond a certain very limited extent, is not the case at present. The most conscientious mother, in the enjoyment of the best health, and having but a single child, cannot and ought not to devote herself exclusively to that child's education. Her own comfort and happiness, and those of her husband, together with her duties as a member of society, present many calls upon her time and attention. And yet a child is not safe for a single hour in the care of an ignorant person. A tale of fear, an unmerited reproof, an idle threat,—or, on the other hand, a dose of flattery, an example of deception, or a thoughtless concession to a fit of pouting and crying,—may do mischief which it will be the work of days to undo. Nor is it reasonable to expect that every mother should herself possess, even in a moderate degree, the qualifications of a teacher. Indeed, while female education is in its present state, it must be hopeless to look for these qualifications in the generality of cases. Even, however, if all mothers were equally and perfectly competent to the task, and if each could afford to keep an intelligent and educated nursemaid at hand to take charge of the child when she herself is called off, the plan of private education would be objectionable. For not only can many children together be taught as well

and with as little effort as a few, but they can positively be taught much better and with less effort. The life, spirit, and circulation of knowledge, which great numbers meeting together under good arrangements insure, cannot be looked for when three or four only meet, and they perhaps (as is often the case in small numbers) all of different ages and dispositions. Nor is it possible for any individual to have such an apparatus for education as many united can command.

Much stress has been laid on the peculiar affection of a mother for her offspring, as a qualification for conducting its education. The justice of this argument we, to a certain extent, admit. This feeling on the part of the mother must have a tendency to obtain for the child a greater amount of patient attention and watchful care than could be expected from any other person. But, putting out of the question the other demands on the mother's attention, and the circumstance that she is not trained to the office of an educator, the very fact on which the argument is based entails something which must be carried to the debit side of the account; and which, indeed, we fear, more than counterbalances the good to be derived from it. In the majority of instances that have come under our observation, even amongst the most enlightened parents, the parental feeling has proved too strong for the judgment; and the child's habits have been seriously injured, and a train laid for much future misery, through the want of the power of acting steadily on sound principles, when they call for the infliction of a little temporary pain.* Every one must have witness-

* We do not of course mean the infliction of corporal punishment of any kind. However erroneous the system on which an in-

ed in others endless instances of what we are pointing out, and must have felt grieved at his own utter inability to prevent the evil. He knows that to speak on the subject would inevitably be to excite strong feeling, and that there would be little hope of setting the facts before the parent in their true light. In truth, parental fondness, like any other affection of the mind, the moment it gets beyond the control of the judgment, must be considered, strictly speaking, as a species of insanity; and therefore as incapacitating a person for calm observation and wise decision. For many reasons, then, it appears unwise for parents to undertake the education of their own infants: and if such be the case, no time should be lost by the middle and higher classes in opening infant schools.

LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS FOR THE MIDDLE AND HIGHER CLASSES.

These institutions, we are glad to observe, are rapidly extending themselves; indeed, few large towns are now without at least one of the kind, for the general purposes of science and literature, besides minor institutions for the cultivation of particular branches of science. In London the number of these institutions is very great. There are no fewer than eleven of a general character; and those for specific purposes,

fant may be brought up, *that* barbarous mode of influencing it can never be necessary. We refer to the withholding improper indulgences, however sued for by prayers and tears; and to making the child suffer the natural consequences of its occasional misconduct,—as being dismissed from a room where, by its fretfulness, it is disturbing the peace of others, &c.

—such as the Astronomical, Geographical, Geological, Zoological, and Statistical Societies; the Societies of Painters and of Civil Engineers; the different Medical and Chirurgical societies, Law societies, &c. &c. — are almost beyond enumeration.

At many of these institutions, the facilities afforded for the acquirement of knowledge are striking, when the smallness of the charge is considered. Take, for instance, the City of London Institution, Aldersgate-street. The annual subscription is two guineas; and for this sum a member is entitled to the use of an extensive library for circulation and reference; has access to reading-rooms supplied with all the daily papers, magazines, reviews, &c.; and to a museum of natural and artificial curiosities; may attend classes for instruction in the French, German, Italian, and Latin languages, and in drawing; and for discussion on various subjects connected with philosophical inquiry: and, lastly, he has an opportunity once a week of hearing a public lecture; the lecturer often being a man of high standing in science or literature.

This institution (like almost all others in this country which are not intended either for the very poor or *the very rich*,) is dependent for its income on its own resources alone; that is, on the annual subscriptions of its members; and the fund thus raised is found amply sufficient for the demands upon it. It appears by the last report, that the income for the second half of 1834 was about 1000*l*., while the expenditure was only 700*l*.—If the superior economy of union required to be established, here surely we find it supported by irrefragable proof. How little could be done by the isolated expenditure of so small a sum as two guineas,

towards obtaining a news-room, a library, a museum, instruction in four different languages and in drawing, and opportunities of attending able lectures in various departments of science and literature! And yet how fully are all these objects attained by a number of persons joining their little funds together! The streamlets which, while separate, are evaporated or absorbed, need but be joined to form the mighty river.

EDUCATION OF THE WEALTHY CLASSES.

It is not our intention to enter fully into this branch of our subject. Much that we have said respecting what we conceive to be errors in the present system of education among the middle classes applies with yet greater force to the education of the wealthy classes. The opinion is indeed abroad, and is gaining strength daily, that the objects and means of education among the aristocracy of this country are to a great extent alike erroneous; and the importance of effecting a speedy change in that which is bad cannot be denied, when we recollect the great powers with which, by the institutions of the country, our patrician youth are entrusted so soon as they have reached the age of manhood. It is then an inquiry worthy the grave attention, not only of parents in the ranks of the hereditary aristocracy, but of all who have at heart the progress of just and wise legislation, and the administration of good government; — it is, we say, an inquiry worthy of grave and general attention, whether a portion of the time now spent in attempting (and for the most part vainly attempting) to familiarize the

young members of the aristocracy with the nice distinctions of languages now fallen into disuse,—or at best, to make them acquainted, through the medium of those languages, with the laws, habits, and modes of thinking of nations long since passed away, with whom we have comparatively little in common, and who, however bright they may appear amidst the contemporary gloom, were, nevertheless, in all that affects the great interests of mankind, in the whole range of the sciences, and in almost all the arts of life—above all, in an acquaintance with the great principles of morality and religious truth, immeasurably our inferiors;—whether a portion of the time so employed would not be more advantageously occupied in endeavouring, by instruction conveyed in their native tongue, to make them acquainted with the men, manners, and institutions of their own times?—to lay open to them the principles of sound morality, illustrated by examples drawn from passing events? to give them an insight into those truths of science which ages of unwearied research have at last brought to light, and which are leading on, perhaps, to truths of yet greater moment? to lead them, by the study of real history—not the mere record of court intrigues or antiquarian curiosities, but the chronicle of the great events of passing ages—the record of those auspicious or portentous facts which mark the knowledge, virtue and happiness, or the ignorance, vice and misery, of millions of human beings, to regard the institutions of their country with no blind veneration, but with a full comprehension and a sincere love of their excellences, a deep rejoicing at the progress they have made, and a warm but well-regulated desire for

farther advancement?—again, to awaken the sympathies of our high-born youth for those classes of society which are placed by fortune in an humble position, and whose comforts and happiness will be affected by every law which, as legislators, they may be called on to decide upon? and, finally, to prepare them for the gradual progress which society is making towards that state of things in which a character for superior virtue and talent will be looked upon as essential to any claim for the possession of superior power?—the opinion is, we say, gaining ground, that if these latter were made the objects of education, other and far worthier qualifications might be given to our legislators than the power of making smart speeches interlarded with trite quotations. It is hoped that an insight might be afforded into the practical working of our existing laws, and the probable operation of new ones; and that a moral rectitude might be created, which would be proof against all temptation to sacrifice the mighty interests of the nation at the shrine of avarice or ambition.

But what are the incentives to virtue, what the means of developing the powers of the mind, under the present system? Let us look for a moment at the circumstances under which the education of the young patrician is conducted. In his first outset, he is placed either under a tutor, who is probably looking forward to the patronage of his pupil's family for preferment in the Church; or in a private school, in which the little aristocrat is petted and flattered as a decoy for other scholars; or lastly, he is sent to one of the great public schools.

Here he is soon sensible, on all points, that he is

under the exercise of authority; and he may perhaps for a moment presume (if his ideas have not been previously distorted) that those in whom this power is vested have been selected on account of their distinguished fitness for the office. But how does the reality accord with this reasonable expectation? In the first place, has the head master, the fountain of power, been chosen for the high moral tone of his character—his perfect self-control, his love of young persons, his firmness combined with gentleness and patience, his profound knowledge of human nature and the springs to human action, his acquaintance with the philosophy and practice of good government, his power of rightly estimating the talent and acquirements of others, and of holding those who act under him to efficient responsibility? — or has he been selected, without examination into these qualifications, merely because he happens to excel in one confined branch of literary knowledge?

Again, the child finds himself placed under the authority of certain of his companions. Does he at the same time see provided a ready appeal to a superior authority in case of the abuse of this power? Does he learn that those in whom this important trust is reposed have been selected on account of their ascertained fitness? or does experience of their gentle sway teach him that, by the plan of selection, whatever it be, such fitness is virtually secured? Is it not in more than one instance the fact, that the claim to this high power rests on no merit whatever? not even on proficiency in the confined department of knowledge, in the cultivation of which the whole machinery of the school is employed? Yes, even

Latin and Greek, the Gog and Magog to whom all else is sacrificed, find here the limit of their power: for their votary, however deeply skilled in the mysteries of his faith, they can claim no favour if they have received his adorations at any of their other shrines. His offerings must derive sanctity from the very spot: it is here, upon this hill, that he must have worshipped, or no priestly honours can be his. He must show that he has been exposed for a certain length of time to the effects of bad example and the abuse of power, before he himself can be entrusted with authority. In a word, he must prove that he has been a slave, in order to show that he is qualified to become a despot.

But for the modes of instruction;—compulsion is the nostrum; its effects—we cite from a staunch and able friend of the present system what many of our readers will recognise as an o'er true tale. "The words will have been repeated, the lesson construed; the poetry of Virgil and Homer, and the prose of Cicero and Demosthenes, will have been committed to the memory, and a facility acquired of rendering so much Greek and Latin into so much English: but the mind, the taste, the moral feelings, will have remained utterly uneducated; the judgment unrefined, the style unformed. The task will have been performed, the business of education creditably gone through: but that done, all is considered to be done. No desire of future improvement is stirring in the yet unsatisfied mind — no aspirations after higher perfection awakened. The wondering parent is delighted at the proficiency of the youth, who, he finds, has thus been perforce saturated with school learning;

but is too ignorant, or too blind, to take notice whether he ever after recurs to those books over which he has spent so many years of his young life, — or whether he recurs, of his own accord, to any book at all. In short, we would put the plain question, whether what is technically called at the universities the cramming system, the results of which are sometimes, both at school and at college, so apparently flattering to the instructor, and so complacently admired by the parent, answers in the end one real purpose of education?— whether Jack, though by some good fortune, or as the reward of such incessant toil, he may have obtained school and university honours, is not as dull a boy as ever—perhaps conceited in his dulness? Even his habits of application, not being voluntary, are by no means settled and confirmed: no one of the faculties which are to be of use in public life has been quickened or rendered more acute; he has not acquired one taste which will give a polished tone to his mind; he has neither a scholar-like, nor a literary, nor a scientific turn."—*Quarterly Review, August* 1834.

After passing through the different grades of a public school, the young patrician is sent to one of the universities. Here he finds that, however idle he may hitherto have been, and whatever may be his mental deficiencies and moral deformities, his being the son of A and B instead of C and D, of great O instead of little s, is sufficient to relieve him from all difficulties. Selected from the throng of students, and placed in an honoured seat in the society of the chiefs of the college,

> With what a decent pride he casts his eyes
> Above the man by three descents less wise!

while those certificates which others must toil to obtain are offered to him without any inquiry into the reality of the acquisitions the possession of which they formally attest. He looks on with careless indifference, while the grim ferryman receives now these, now those, and drives others far away. He views in calm security this contest between mind and mind; and showing his golden talisman, its potency is at once acknowledged, and the path to elysium is clear.

And what are the kinds of study in which the young nobleman is invited to engage, supposing him to have too much self-respect to consent to be party to the forgery, and to suffer himself to be stamped, like a piece of base metal, with a false index of value? At Cambridge, we gladly admit, that, ill adapted as many of the studies may be to particular tastes and powers, and limited as the paths to academic honours still are, knowledge of the most intellectual and elevating kind may be pursued under professors of transcendent talent and surpassing acquirements. But at Oxford the case is different. Had Pope lived at the present day, he would not, we suspect, have been more at fault than at his own time for a "great scholiast" to support the claims of the University to the favour of the Goddess of Dulness:—

> Ah! think not, mistress, more true dulness lies
> In Folly's cap than Wisdom's grave disguise.
> Like buoys that never sink into the flood,
> On learning's surface we but lie and nod.

At Oxford, language still holds the supreme sway it has long usurped, and things give way to words.

The Heads of Houses persist in refusing to allow the examination for degrees to extend to a knowledge, however limited, of any of the physical sciences; maintaining that such knowledge does not form any essential part of a liberal education:* nor can a claim to a degree be founded on an acquaintance with these sciences, however accurate and extensive. No; the wise men of Oxford are resolved to show that Nature was wrong in creating a diversity of inclinations and a variety of powers: they will have all men alike; with them the knowledge of two dead languages shall be the universal passport, and the only one. Whatever the character of your intellect, whatever the complexion of your taste, to this favour you must come: it is not the body of knowledge, but an antiquated raiment of words, that shall be held valuable. Store not up facts; but, like Lord Peter, send for a box from Greece or Rome;—it matters not whether you have aught to put in it; it is the box, not the contents, that will be examined. Produce this, and you are everything: be without it, and

* This subject has been frequently handled in a very able manne in the Journal of Education. The extent of ignorance among the Oxford students on matters connected with natural philosophy is astounding. The Rev. Baden Powell, Savilian Professor of Geometry at Oxford, calls attention to this subject in his introductory lecture. The examiners having drawn up a few simple questions in natural philosophy, to be put to those who came to pass their examination in the requisite portion of Euclid's Elements, it appeared, says Mr. Powell, "that (at least at the two first examinations) out of the whole number of candidates, though a certain portion had 'got up' the four first books of Euclid, not more than two or three could add vulgar fractions, or tell the cause of day or night, or the principle of the pump!"

though you understand all mysteries and all knowledge, you are nothing.

The insufficiency and inaptitude of the present university course of instruction at Oxford for accomplishing the real purposes of education are well put by Professor Powell. "In what sense," observes Mr. Powell, "the mere routine of continuing to read a certain portion of the Greek and Latin poets and historians, with the addition of learning by rote a few technicalities of logic, can be called general education, or by what perversion or delusion this can be considered as answering the purposes of academical instruction, or fulfilling the requisitions of an academical course, for supplying the various departments of church and state with fit and able men, duly qualified to fill and adorn them, is difficult to say."

There is truth as well as poetry in Moore's description of the state of ignorance in which Sheridan quitted college; and the picture still holds good. He is described as having "left school, like most other young men at his age, as little furnished with the knowledge that is wanted in the world, as a person would be for the demands of a market who went into it with nothing but a few ancient coins in his pocket."

Again, let us not be misunderstood; let no one misrepresent us as denying to the classics their proper value, or as wishing to exclude their study from a liberal education. We are sensible of the immense benefit derived from their study in past ages; and we are aware that from their rich mine much that is valuable is yet to be drawn. But that they should be considered of such importance as to engross all the attention of all who seek to be educated,—that

every one must be doomed either to acquire knowledge in them, or to be stigmatized as a dunce,—it is to this absurd and monstrous over-estimate of their value that we would so strongly object.

Moral and political science has practically no place at either university; and the opinions necessarily resulting from such studies would, we fear, as little accord with the views and feelings of the majority of those in whose hands the directing power is lodged, as do true morality and sound principles of government with the regulations, laws, and discipline of the universities themselves.

Is it wonderful that, under these circumstances, the staunchest friends of the aristocracy should look with doubt to the future? should anxiously weigh its chance of maintaining its present position? should call on those who direct the education of its youth for a modification of measures and an increase of exertion?* May the call be obeyed; and may all danger of violent collision between the aristocracy and other classes of society be thereby averted!

Under tolerable management, would the extra-

* "The House of Peers must not depend on the continued infusion of new blood, of fresh intellectual strength, into their order, from the constant accession of the most accomplished and successful men for certain professions—(though this is the peculiar strength and security of this branch of the constitution): the hereditary aristocracy must strain every nerve to keep ahead of the general mass; it must counterbalance the inevitable general tendency of distinguished birth and unbounded wealth to indolent luxury, or more manly and adventurous dissipation, by connecting itself as closely as possible with the intellectual energies of the country."

Quarterly Review, August 1834, p. 135.

"Scientific knowledge is rapidly spreading *among all classes* EXCEPT THE HIGHER; and the consequences must be, that that

ordinary facilities possessed by the members of the wealthy classes for acquiring knowledge—their unlimited command of teachers, books, and the other instruments of learning, together with the complete disposal of their own time, prove of so little avail? Assuredly they would not. Upon a good system of education, by which their various powers should be developed, and their better feelings cherished and confirmed; by which, too, they should be presented with objects of truly noble ambition, and led to taste of the stream of real happiness,—especially of that purest of fountains, the delight of doing good;—under such circumstances, and with such an education as we have glanced at, we should no longer find the children of the rich and powerful, on attaining that period of life when they ought to be impelled by their feelings and directed by their knowledge to labour effectually in the promotion of human happiness, abandon themselves to frivolous or selfish pursuits, and instead of promoting, oppose, as a body, the onward course of improvement. No longer should we look upon the seats of learning as the strongholds of bigotry, intolerance, and political injustice; no longer should we find such opinions as those we are about to cite conceived, recorded, and promulgated,—not by an officer of the Spanish Inquisition, or an infuriated priest of Islam,—or, again, by a silly urchin fresh from the lap of

class *will not long remain* THE HIGHER. If its members would continue to retain their superiority, they must preserve a real *pre-eminence in knowledge*, and must make advances at least in proportion to the classes who have *hitherto* been below them."

Professor Powell's Lecture on the State and Prospects of Science at Oxford.

an ignorant, narrow-minded, and bigoted nurse,—but by a reverend Tutor and Fellow of a college in an English university.

"I deny the right of liberty of conscience wholly and utterly. * * * * I deny the right of any sect to depart one atom from the standard which I hold to be the truth of Christianity. And I deny the right of any legislative power, of any minister of God, of any individual on earth, to sanction or permit it, without using every means in their power to control and bring them back from their errors."*

No; we trust that, under the altered circumstances we have referred to, Oxford and Cambridge would become animated by a far different spirit. We should hope to find the dignitaries of the universities not only supporting but originating measures of enlightened philanthropy, and taking the lead among the wise and good; while we should look forward to seeing the representatives of the universities in the national council selected from among the men most distinguished in the land for their profound acquaintance with the philosophy of legislation.

But aught that we can say on the results of the present perverse system of education at the universities is transcendently surpassed by the just and splendid rebuke with which Lord Chancellor Brougham met the sneers which a member of the House of Lords rashly ventured to indulge in, when speaking of that portion of the middle classes who would be admitted by

* Thoughts on the Admission of Dissenters to the University of Oxford, and on the Establishment of the State Religion; in a Letter to a Dissenter. By the Rev. W. Sewell, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Exeter College, Oxford. 1834.

the Reform Bill to the exercise of the elective franchise.

"He has thought it becoming and discreet to draw himself up in all the pride of hexameter and pentameter verse, skill in classic authors, the knack of turning fine sentences, and to look down with derision upon the knowledge of his unrepresented fellow-countrymen in the weightier matters of practical legislation.

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"For them I bow to my noble friend's immeasurable superiority in all things classical or critical. In book lore—in purity of diction—in correct prosody—even in elegance of personal demeanour, I and they, in his presence, hide, as well we may, our diminished heads. But to say that I will take my noble friend's judgment on any grave practical subject; on anything touching the great interests of our commercial country; on any of those manly questions which engage the statesman, the philosopher in practice;—to say that I could ever dream of putting his opinions, or his knowledge, in any comparison with the bold, rational, judicious, reflecting, natural, and, because natural, the trustworthy opinions of those honest men, who always give their strong natural sense fair play, having no affections to warp their judgment;—to dream of any such comparison as this, would be, on my part, a flattery far too gross for any courtesy, a blindness which no habits of friendship could excuse."

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

Having now spoken of the different kinds of schools t present existing in this country, and generally of he means employed for affording education, we go on ɔ inquire how far education is in fact diffused at the resent time; and in a subsequent part of our work e shall endeavour to trace the effects of education so far as it is carried) on the morals, comforts, and appiness of the people. In discussing the first topic, e shall find it convenient incidentally to enter upon ıe second, in the same way as we have frequently ɔuched upon both in treating of the *means* for diffus-ıg education.

We have already spoken of the great difficulty of ɔming to a safe conclusion on any branch of this ıbject, owing to the want of evidence collected on broad basis by competent and trustworthy persons. Intil such a body of evidence has been obtained, the ıost contradictory opinions will continue to prevail. onclusions are at present drawn from the most scanty ıaterials; and as a man may happen to live in one ɔrner of the country or another, so will he form a igh or low opinion of the means of education now in se, and of the effects produced.

This state of uncertainty is most pernicious in its ɔnsequences. Could it be clearly shown to every ıan's mind, firstly, that the spread of knowledge really :ads to increase in virtue and happiness, and secondly, ıat there is at present a great amount of ignorance in ıis country, few would be unwilling to assist in pro-

moting education. Uncertainty is, in fact, the great paralyser of human exertions; and while a suspicion exists that the accounts which are drawn from time to time of the ignorance of the lower classes are exaggerated (which in all probability they sometimes are); or whilst, in the minds of many, there lurks a doubt as to the real value of knowledge to the poorer classes, and of its tendency to make them better and happier members of society, it is vain to hope for any general and cordial co-operation in a plan for establishing an extensive and consolidated system of national education. The collection, therefore, of such a mass of facts as shall remove all scepticism on the subject, is, in our opinion, the great *desideratum*, and the object first to be accomplished.

From the best evidence we can command, we believe that education is most extensively diffused in the northern parts of England: next to these in the manufacturing and commercial districts generally, and least of all in the southern and midland agricultural district. It is well worthy of remark, that as regards the spread of pauperism, the country may be divided in the same manner. In the North of England, the pressure of the poor-rates is least, and in the southern and midland agricultural district it is greatest; while in the manufacturing and commercial district the pressure is at a mean.

The superior state of education in the North of England is so generally admitted, that it is perhaps scarcely necessary to adduce evidence in support of the statement. The following however will, we think, be found interesting, and will serve to strengthen in the mind the connexion between a good state of edu-

ation and a high standard of morality, comfort and appiness.

We insert, in the first place, a letter we have received from John Grey, Esq. a magistrate for the ounty of Northumberland. Having read with great nterest Mr. Grey's evidence before the Committee of he House of Lords in 1831 on the Poor Laws, and eeling certain that no one could have arrived at such nlightened views respecting many of the causes of auperism without at the same time turning his attenion to the subject of education, we took the liberty of riting to Mr. Grey, to request that he would furnish s with any information he might happen to possess elative to the state of education in the North of Engnd. In reply we received the following letter:—

* * * * * * *

"You are not wrong in thinking that I had probably iven it [the subject of education,] some attention, as eeply connected with the condition and welfare of he lower orders; and I assure you that the opportuity, which a short residence in Surrey, Cambridgehire, and other of the southern counties, afforded me f comparing their peasantry with that of the north, nly served more strongly to convince me of the value f education in elevating the moral character, improvng the habits, and conferring the wholesome spirit of ndependence upon them.

"You are of course aware that the parochial system f education in Scotland has brought the means of obaining it within the reach of the great bulk of its opulation; and has, by diffusing knowledge and a spirit f inquiry, led to the establishment of other schools han those supported or aided by public endowments

in every considerable village. In this way, the great bulk of the lowest orders obtain a knowledge of reading and writing at least, and many of these push their pursuits much farther; so that when talent and inclination combine, and take advantage of the cheapness of education generally in that part of the kingdom, as well as the easy terms on which the classes in the universities may be attended, instances are not unfrequent of men of learning and celebrity having emerged from the peasantry of the land. The late Professor Leslie was an eminent example of this kind.

"On the south of the Tweed, too, though there is no established system as in Scotland, whether aided by intercourse, example, or emulation, the education of the lower orders is very general, and sought after with great avidity. Assistance is commonly given by the resident proprietors or extensive farmers in providing a schoolhouse, and perhaps a dwelling-house, for the village teacher; but his payment arises almost exclusively from the scholars themselves. In the village of Millfield, we had a school consisting of from 80 to 100 scholars: the school and dwelling-house were built by subscription, held rent-free by the teacher, and kept in repair by the tenants of the township;—his only emolument, besides the quarterly payment by the children's parents, was 5*l.* a year contributed by myself,—and that I gave, not because it was necessary for his support, so much as to give me a control over his conduct and appointment. Several other such schools exist in the same parish; and I would say, that of its population brought up within the last twenty years, there is not one who cannot read and write.

"Where a taste for knowledge is once spread among

a people, and education has become so common as to convey a reproach to those who are destitute of it, I find that it goes on very well without extraneous patronage and support. And generally, I think, it may be inferred that people will set a greater value on acquirements purchased by their own exertions; and that thus they will employ the time in acquiring them more diligently than when the means are supplied gratuitously. I have known, indeed, in the South of England, where parents were urged to send their children to a school supported by some benevolent individual, that they received the invitation rather as the bestower than the recipient of the favour.

"Of the benefits of education it is hardly needful to treat. I have seen a moral and industrious race of young people issue from the school in Millfield under my own eye; and several youths have been sent from among these, as bailiffs and stewards, to different parts of the United Kingdom, by my recommendation, whose fitness for such situations was mainly attributable to the instructions obtained there. I am at present resident in the south of Northumberland, having under my eye and management the extensive property of the Greenwich Hospital in these parts, consisting of land and lead-mines. The miners are, as a body, sober, industrious, and well-informed, living in small communities in retired dales, and thus escaping the contamination of large concentrated masses, with a good deal of time in the evenings, which they employ in reading useful publications from the many village libraries that are established in the district. Until I looked into their manner of life and sources of information, I was surprised at, and at a

loss to account for, the well-written and intelligent letters that I frequently received from this class of people.

"The depression in lead-mining, and consequent pressure upon these poor people, for some years has been great (though now, I am happy to say, their condition is improving); and the manner in which they supported and conducted themselves through it was equally surprising and laudable. The agricultural population here is neither so orderly, so well off, so provident, nor so well educated, as on the borders;* arising chiefly from the smallness of the farms; on which labourers are not so regularly employed; and from their being paid in money; to which I ascribe the greater prevalence of drunkenness; a vice hardly known, and regarded with disgust, among the regularly hired farm-servants, whose wages are paid in kind, upon the extensive farms in the vicinity of the Tweed.

"I must apologise for the haste and frequent interruption to which I have been subject in writing."

* * * * *

The following are some of the answers received by the Poor Law Commissioners, from Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland and Durham, in reply to the question—"Is the industry of the labourers in your neighbourhood supposed to be increasing or diminishing; that is, are your labourers supposed to be better or worse workmen than they formerly were?"

* At the time when Mr. Grey gave his evidence before the Committee on the Poor Laws, his place of residence was in the northern part of the county; and he gives an interesting and instructive description of the intelligent, sober, thrifty, and contented peasantry by which that district is peopled.

NORTHUMBERLAND.—*Bothall.*—"It is thought that the labourers are more skilful workmen in consequence of being better educated."

Bolam Parish.—"The labourers are, with some solitary exceptions, very industrious."

Chatton.—"Increasing. Upon the whole, the workmen are better labourers, and all other tradesmen are better than formerly."

Chollerton.—"Increasing. Labourers better workmen than formerly."

Whelpington.—"Increasing, and better workmen, because more intelligent, and not so much addicted as formerly to run after idle sports and games, such as cock-fighting, horse-races, &c."

Ford.—"The industry of the multitude is neither more nor less than it used to be, though in many individual instances it is increased; and all are decidedly better workmen, owing to a greatly improved system of agriculture, and to a very slight pressure of numbers: for the spirit of independence being unbroken among the people, the competition tends to make them both more industrious and better workmen. Many are also looking forward to becoming proprietors of land in Canada, or tenants of farms at home: this stimulates them to save." It is also asserted, that both masters and servants are more civilized—more "polite" was one of the terms used to me; and certainly their language and address are decidedly superior to those of the same class in the South of England. "The colliers also are very much improved; and the education of all, both male and female, is of a much better description than this class can usually command, and it is moreover paid for by themselves."

CUMBERLAND.—*Caldbeck.*—"The industry of our labourers may be considered as increasing, as they are in general better workmen than formerly."

Dacre.—"As the rates of the parish have not materially increased for several years with a greatly increasing population, it is but fair to infer that the industry of the labourers has not diminished. Labourers under the improved system of agriculture are undoubtedly more skilful than they used to be."

Loweswater.—"The industry of the labourers for the last forty years is much the same: we think them better workmen."

WESTMORELAND.—*Ambleside.*—"I do not perceive much difference in the labourers: they are good workmen, and, generally speaking, industrious."

Barton.—"It may fairly be inferred from the improved mode of agriculture, that labourers are not worse workmen, but better than they were formerly; indeed, in our neighbourhood they are generally very good workmen."

DURHAM.—*Heighington.*—"They are equally industrious, and better workmen than formerly."

Felkington.—"Labourers much the same as formerly; very industrious, excellent workmen, and improving in their system of work."

Longridge.—"No alteration: the labourers are sober and industrious."

Norham.—"The farmers, one and all, speak well of their labourers, as being sober, contented, and anxious to avoid the degradation of being on the list of paupers."

The foregoing are certainly favourable specimens of

the replies received; but the general tone of these replies is decidedly good.

The following extracts are from two communications which appear in the Appendix to the Poor Law Report. The papers are headed, "Causes of the Superior Condition of the Labourers of the North to that of the South." The first is from J. C. Blackden, Esq. of Ford Castle, Wooler, Northumberland. Mr. Blackden says,—

"In taking a short review of my answers to the Commissioners' queries, the advantageous position of our labouring population, when compared with the position of those in the more southern districts of the country, must be manifest. It is impossible to live among them without being struck by their superior intelligence and their superior morality. I am fully justified in making this assertion, by the parliamentary returns of criminal commitments in the several counties of England, which prove Northumberland to be very much more free from crime than any other county. A principal cause of this, I have no doubt, arises from the education they receive at the schools scattered about the country. In these schools, independent of higher branches of knowledge being taught than is usual, the Bible is the grand school-book; which being read in early life, its precepts are valued, retained, and acted upon. In many cottages, besides other religious books, expensive commentaries on the Bible also are found, particularly Matthew Henry's; public places of worship are steadily frequented; and the whole population, dressed in a very superior style of clothing, are every Sunday seen flocking towards them, and form a beautiful and animating scene."

The other communication is from the Rev. W. S. Gilly, Vicar of Norham Parish, Northumberland, who says,—

"I scarcely know an instance in which the children of an agricultural labourer have not been sent to school, for the most part at his own expense. There are at this time eight village schools for daily instruction in Norham parish, containing 320 children, whose parents are paying for their instruction at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* or 3*s.* a quarter; besides a free school, containing 27. In all these schools the Scriptures are read daily, and religious instruction is imparted; so that the lessons taught are not on the side of mere scholarship only, (although I know several boys of fourteen and fifteen who have made advancement in the higher branches of arithmetic and in practical geometry in these village schools,) but of reflection and religion. I believe the parents set a greater value on that education, the expenses of which they defray themselves: they watch their children's progress more narrowly.

"It is in these things that we discern the close and inseparable connexion between the moral and the outward condition of the agricultural labourer. From prudence and education results the prosperity of this district; and it is not here as in some places, that 'the absolute plenty of the land, and the relative poverty of the people who live in it, keep pace one with the other.' A high standard of character has raised the standard of comfort here; and for many years useful education, combined with Christian education, has been diffusing its blessings."

MANUFACTURING AND COMMERCIAL DISTRICT.

The evidence respecting the state of education in the large towns is contradictory and perplexing. We cannot agree with Lord Brougham, that education is less provided for in the large towns than in the country districts: we believe the towns have the advantage by far; but what the provision really is—what fraction of the rising generation are going to school, and how much they really learn when there—as also to what extent the adult population has been educated—are questions to which we confess we are unable to come to any decisive conclusion.

Of the *comparative* state of education in our large towns at the present and past times, there is no doubt in favour of the present. Insufficient as is the provision for education at our own day—numerous as is the class that are growing up without receiving any education whatever—and small as is the amount of instruction given to those who are admitted into our public schools, it is certain that a considerable improvement has been made: and distant as may be the goal of perfection, it cannot be doubted that we are much forwarder in the race than at any previous time. As respects London, for example; though the facts we have already brought forward testify that the provision for education is still very insufficient (a conclusion, the truth of which we shall soon show more fully), we have no fear of the existence, at the present time, of such a state of ignorance among the poorer classes as was elicited by a parliamen-

tary committee in 1816; before whom, for example, it appeared in evidence, that in a small district in the neighbourhood of Covent-garden, which had been examined by one of the witnesses, (not on account of any peculiarity as distinguished from other districts occupied by the poorer classes,) out of 242 boys and 197 girls, only 97 boys and 75 girls were either receiving education or had the means of obtaining any: and before whom also it appeared in evidence, that so utterly blind were the inhabitants of the parish of St. Giles's—or at least a portion of them —to the value of education for their children, that on a school (intended for their benefit) being opened in the year 1814, a crowd assembled who broke the windows of the school-house and pelted the master and mistress.

The question of the absolute state of education is, however, much more important than its relative state: and here it is very difficult, with our present scanty materials, to make even an approximation to the truth. Not only is there a great deficiency of record, but, what is still worse, doubt hangs over the accuracy of many even of the most trustworthy statements.

Among the towns in which education is comparatively in a good state, we think we may safely put Birmingham, Stockport, and Stroud: and it is very possible that there are others equally deserving of honourable mention, with the claims of which we do not happen to be acquainted. Among the towns in which education is comparatively and absolutely in a bad state, we fear we must enumerate London, Manchester, Oldham, Wolverhampton, Durham, Stafford, and Bristol: though what portion of the population,

either youthful or adult, is receiving or has received any kind of education in each of these divisions, we are unable to say with anything like precision.

Mr. Dunn, the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society, is of opinion, that if the provision for educating the working and poorer classes should remain in its present imperfect state, not more than one half of the rising generation will ever learn even to read with sufficient ease to use the power with comfort and pleasure to themselves; and that a very small fraction indeed will ever become able to write fluently, or acquire any considerable knowledge of arithmetic. On the other hand, a Birmingham manufacturer with whom we have the pleasure of being acquainted, and who, during a long, active and benevolent life has always had his attention fixed on the state of education around him, and who has watched the rapid progress which has been made in his district during the last forty years, cannot believe but that in all large towns the whole rising generation will, with few exceptions, learn reading and writing at least. No person, he says, connected with his own manufactory is unable to read and write; and elsewhere he very rarely meets with any one destitute of this elementary knowledge. It is probable that each of these opinions has been influenced by the peculiar position of the party forming it. It must, however, be at once admitted that Mr. Dunn has a much wider range of observation than our friend at Birmingham.

A table is given in the Supplementary Report of the Factory Commissioners, (part i. p. 42,) by which it would appear, that out of about 50,000 work-people (men, women, and children,) engaged in different

cotton-factories, from which returns have been made, about 43,000 are able to read, and that of these 21,000 are able to write. This account, which even if trustworthy would be far from satisfactory, must, we think, be received with great allowance. In the first place, it must be presumed that those factories from which no report was sent had the least pleasing picture to present. Again, both masters and workmen would naturally wish to make as favourable a report as possible: and though this feeling would not, we hope, lead in many instances to wilful misrepresentations, it would probably elicit claims to scholarship from many workmen whose literary attainments were of the slenderest kind; and it would probably prevent many of the masters instituting a very severe ordeal by which to try the validity of such claims. One of the Visiting Commissioners being on a visit to a cotton-factory in Scotland, put the question aloud to the work-people who were assembled in the factory. He requested that all who were able to write would raise their hand; and up sprang the hands of almost all who were present. On trial, however, many of these very men were found not only unable to write with any degree of ease and despatch, but literally incapable of *signing their own names!* It is probable that many of the poor fellows having had some little instruction in childhood, had considered themselves thereby entitled to take place as penmen; and doubtless they had remained too well satisfied with their rank as it stood, to risk its stability by any needless appeal to experiment.

Mr. Dunn thinks it must be taken as a general rule, that where an individual is unable to *write at all*, he is

not able to *read* with sufficient fluency to enjoy the occupation. Assuming that Mr. Dunn is correct in this view, (and it appears to us most probable that he is so,) then, without making any allowance for the sources of error to which we have referred, we are driven to the conclusion that not *one half* of the 50,000 cotton-spinners in question are able to read with sufficient ease to make the acquisition of any considerable value. If this be a specimen—and we fear it must be received as such—of the general state of education in large and densely-peopled districts of England, no time should be lost in taking decisive measures for effecting a change.

LONDON AND ITS NEIGHBOURHOOD.—In the Report of the British and Foreign School Society for the year 1833, it is estimated that not less than 150,000 children are growing up in London without education; and in the last Report (1834), this neglected state of education in the metropolis is again noticed. We extract the following passage:—

Barbican.—"If we take a circle in no part extending more than a quarter of a mile from this place, we shall find in less than one quarter of that district a population of 18,000 souls; and out of that population the entire number of children supplied with gratuitous and effective daily instruction does not exceed 300."

Bethnal Green.—"This parish at the last census contained upwards of 62,000 inhabitants; the greater part of whom are of the lower classes of society. In the above census is included at least 12,000 children under the age of fourteen; and of these not above 2,000 enjoy the advantage of daily instruction; leav-

ing the other 10,000 to wander during the week in ignorance and sin."

Even Sunday school instruction, inefficient as it is, (excepting under peculiar circumstances,) is not provided for any considerable portion of the children in this district; as appears from the following extract from the evidence of Mr. Althans, Secretary to the East London Sunday School Union.

"Have you an accurate statement of the population of Spitalfields and Bethnal Green, and the number of Sunday schools?—The population of Spitalfields is 17,949; Bethnal Green, 62,018: total, 79,967."

"Is that from the Population Returns?—From the last population returns. Sunday schools in Spitalfields and Bethnal Green, 27; teachers, 457; scholars, 5,728, exclusive of the National schools. There ought to be in Sunday schools 15,000 to meet the wants of the population."

Parish of St. Pancras.—Population, in 1831, upwards of 100,000. In the Journal of Education for January, 1833, (page 70,) a list is given of all the schools in this parish (as accurately as the writer could construct it), which are supported, altogether or in part, by charity, with the number of scholars in each, whenever that number could be obtained. After giving the list referred to, the writer continues:—

"We are inclined to think that the whole number of poor children receiving instruction in this parish is considerably under 3,000; for it must be recollected that some of those who attend day schools attend the Sunday schools also, while some attend the Sunday schools alone. Taking, then, this into account, as well as the circumstance that the number on the books

of these schools is generally about one fourth or one fifth, at least, above the number regularly attending, we are not inclined to consider the number who are receiving a regular education as above 2,000. As to forming any exact estimate of the number of children who are uninstructed, and who cannot be instructed unless some aid is given to their parents, we have found it impossible to come to any satisfactory conclusion."

Westminster.—In an article in the New Monthly Magazine for January 1832, headed "The Universal Education of the People essential to the Public Happiness," the following passage appears:

"Still, infant schools are almost languishing in England for want of public support and good visitation. In Westminster, for instance, the centre of public spirit, there are above 8,000 children from two to six years of age fit for infant schools. During twelve years, also, the richer people of Westminster have had before their eyes eminently successful examples of these schools, from their first establishment under Mr. Buchanan, their originator;* and the inhabitants possess a rental of more than a million sterling on the one hand, whilst they see a yearly increasing mass of crime and pauperism threatening their peace on the other. Nevertheless, in defiance of this invitation—of this means of enjoying the good, and of the warning given by so much evil—about one thousand only of

* The writer is in error if he supposes that Mr. Buchanan was the original projector of infant schools. He was, however, the first superintendent of an infant school in England; having been prepared for his office of instructor of infant children at Mr. Owen's establishment at New Lanark.

the children are provided with this excellent corrective to vice."

One circumstance, which we have already had occasion to mention, and which furnishes some important inferences on the subject of our present inquiry, (namely, the number growing up in London without education,) is the great disparity observable (in such returns as make the distinction) between the relative numbers of boys and girls in the various metropolitan schools. According to the returns from the National schools in London, the number of girls in these schools is, as we have seen, only *two thirds* of that of the boys; and in the British schools, it appears by similar returns that they are only *one half!* Now, as there are as many girls to be educated as boys, it appears by these returns, that even if all the boys of an age to receive education were in fact at school, more than one girl in three must be growing up without education. But when it is recollected that the number of boys at school falls far short of the number in existence, it is evident that the number of girls receiving education sinks into the fraction of a fraction. Indeed, so unsatisfactory are the results of this calculation, that we cannot help hoping that either the reports themselves or our inference must be erroneous. Something, perhaps, must be allowed for the practice of educating girls at home: the parents of the poor, however, have rarely the time, even where they may possess the skill and the knowledge, to educate their own children; so that this consideration can have but little weight in the present question.

MANCHESTER.—The following is the concluding

summary of the Report of the Manchester Statistical Society, on the state of education at Manchester. We cannot too strongly recommend this Report (a small pamphlet) for general perusal; the anecdotes with which it is interpersed, while they satisfy the mind of the truth of many of the statements, give life and spirit to the whole:—

"I. That the number of children returned as attending different schools, affords a very imperfect and fallacious criterion of the real state of education in any town or district where such returns are made.

"II. That uniting this ground of judgment with actual inspection of the schools, and examination of the nature and general efficiency of the instruction there received, it appears that the means of education at present existing in the borough of Manchester for the lower classes of the people are extremely inadequate, and are in general very little fitted to secure any of the really valuable results of education to the children who attend them.

"III. That of the children who attend the dame schools, amounting to 4,722, and the greater part of whom are under five years of age, the vast majority receive no instruction which is at all deserving of the name, and derive little benefit from their attendance at school, but that of being kept out of harm during a few hours of the day.

"IV. That the thing most to be wished for children of this early age is, that infant schools should gradually supplant the old dame schools, and be established on so large a scale throughout every part of the borough, as to afford accommodation for all the children of an age to receive instruction there.

"V. That of the children between the ages of five and fifteen, one-third appear to be receiving no instruction whatever in any school.

"VI. That of the children who attend the common day schools, amounting to nearly 7,000, the greater part receive an extremely poor education, scarcely meriting the name; that this is owing chiefly to the ignorance and incapacity of the masters who conduct them; and that no effectual means can be taken to render these schools efficient, until proper seminaries are established for the instruction of the teachers themselves, and till the idea is exploded that the task of education is the only one for which no previous knowledge or qualification is required.

"VII. That notwithstanding the short time necessarily devoted to instruction in the Sunday schools, they must, nevertheless, be regarded as forming a most important feature among the means at present existing in Manchester for the education of the lower classes of the people; that the number of children attending these schools is very considerable, being half as many more as those attending all the other schools put together. That taking into account the miserable state of dame and common day schools, which are attended by two-thirds of all the children of the lower orders, who are under course of daily instruction, it may be well doubted whether the instruction at Sunday schools, inadequate as it may appear, and as it really is, be not yet the most valuable that at present exists in the borough for the children of the lower classes of the people.

"VIII. That until similar inquiries are instituted in other districts, this report will afford no means of

comparing the state of education in Manchester with that in other large towns, or in the rural districts; but assuming that Manchester affords a fair average, the state of education in England presents a painful and mortifying contrast to that of some of the countries on the Continent, whether we look at the numbers continually in attendance at school, or the nature and efficiency of the instruction that they there receive. That while in Prussia and several of the German states, all children of every class, between the ages of seven and fourteen, are obliged by law to attend school; and it is shown by statistical returns that they actually do so; it appears by this Report, that in Manchester not quite two-thirds of those between the ages of five and fifteen receive even nominal instruction. That while in the countries above referred to, schools are carefully provided in every district, and placed under the superintendence of a master who has himself been educated for the profession, and has not been allowed to assume his office till found by strict examination to be qualified for the duties of it; the education of the lower classes in this country is left, with the few exceptions of public charity schools, in the hands of ignorant and uneducated men, who are often destitute of every qualification for their office, and have undertaken it only because they found this the easiest means of gaining a subsistence, and frequently in consequence of accident or bodily infirmity. That the course of instruction in the above countries is as superior as the mode of it. That every complete elementary school is there required to teach the Christian religion, the German language, the elements of geometry, the general principles of

drawing, arithmetic, the elements of natural science, geography, general history (particularly the history of the country), singing, writing, gymnastic exercises, and the simple kinds of manual labour. That no elementary school is considered complete which does not teach all these branches of knowledge, and that a large proportion of those schools actually do so; and that no school is allowed to *exist* which does not teach in an effectual manner, religion, reading, writing, and singing. That in this town, on the other hand, and generally throughout this country, the acquisition of reading, writing, and arithmetic seems to be considered as constituting the finished education of the children of the lower classes of the people. That even these are often very imperfectly taught: and that the real cultivation of the mental powers, the softening the manners, the improvement of the character, instruction on moral and religious subjects, and all the more valuable *objects* of education, are totally neglected and forgotten."

WOLVERHAMPTON AND ITS NEIGHBOURHOOD.—The following appears in the last Report of the British and Foreign School Society:—

"At a public meeting in Wolverhampton, convened by the Constables pursuant to a numerously signed requisition, and held in the Public Office, Oct. 21, 1833, the Rev. J. Clare, in the absence of Sir John Wrottesley, in the chair:—

"By the last census, the population amounted to 24,732; of which number it is computed 5,906 are children under twelve years of age. By far the greater part of this number (perhaps two-thirds) are children of persons dependent for support on their daily labour;

and of the above 5,906, not more than 1,400 are educated in private schools, and 700 in schools wholly or in part supported by public contribution. Upon this calculation, 3,806 remain without education; a number which, being repeated every few years, presents a painful feature in this important district."

Dudley.—"Upwards of 3,000 children of the poorer classes, and of the proper age for instruction, might be found in the immediate neighbourhood of this place, entirely destitute of the means of acquiring education."

Gornals, Parish of Sedgley.—"Over this populous village, which is a mile from the parish church, and the centre of a population of 12,240 souls (chiefly employed as colliers, miners, and nailers), ignorance, misery, and vice prevail to a lamentable extent. Thousands arrived at maturity of years cannot tell a letter of a book; and hence drunkenness, sabbath-breaking, and brutal sports, are very common. Within the range of this population there are found 2,448 children above six years of age: of this number there are only about 300 who attend day schools; leaving 2,148 in a state of the most deplorable ignorance, and without the means of education."

In addition to the foregoing, we will insert some extracts from two letters we have received from a friend residing at Wolverhampton; a gentleman who is always active in the cause of education.

"I shall feel much pleasure in making all the inquiries and exertions in my power to furnish you with information; but Wolverhampton is a most unpromising field in which to search for evidences of the good effects of education. Very little has been done for

public education. The National school here is very inefficient: and even if it were otherwise, united with the other public institutions of a similar character, it, with them, could accommodate but a very small fraction of those who want gratuitous instruction. On these subjects I am not as yet able to come to figures. I am happy to be able to add, that a school is in progress of erection, on the plan of the British and Foreign School Society, which I think will be more valuable than all our other educational institutions together: it will accommodate 800 children. At our endowed grammar school few of the humbler classes are educated, and the education which they receive is not of a practical description; while, at the National school, religious forms constitute a very large portion of what is taught."

In a subsequent letter the writer says:—"The population of Wolverhampton by the last return was 24,732; of which, probably, about 5,900 are under twelve years of age. For the education of these there is now provision made for about 700. The Blue-coat School, an old foundation, accommodates about 150, and in this the course of education is pretty good. The National school contains, or is capable of accommodating, about 450. The number actually attending falls very far short of this amount, however. These, with a Catholic school, containing about 100, are supported mainly by public subscription. The Sunday schools, which, with the exception of our own, containing from 60 to 100 children, confine themselves entirely to reading the Scriptures and Catechisms, and spelling, may probably contain 1,100 or 1,200: but

the education which they communicate is, upon the whole, very limited both in kind and quantity.

"The ill effects of the want of education are here remarkably conspicuous. You may go through the whole catalogue of them and not find any unexemplified. To specify causes would be endless. The desire of education is increasing gradually among the mechanics, as evinced by the increase of subscribers to our Mechanics' Library; yet these do not yet amount to 100."

We extract from the Report of the British and Foreign School Society for 1834 the following notices of the state of education at Durham, Redruth, in Cornwall, and Stafford.

DURHAM, *City.*—"There are places round this city where schools on your principles would be great blessings. I refer to the colliery districts, where the most wretched and defective systems of education are acted upon. The chief difficulty in these places would be getting *one half* of the sum necessary. In one parish there are 22,000 human beings; and if one in thirty be under instruction, it is all that can possibly be found."

Redruth.—"This town and parish contains above 8,000 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of labouring miners. The only public provision made for the education of the poor is the parish workhouse, where about 50 children are taught, who are all paupers. The following resolution was passed at a public meeting held on the 19th of December last:—'Resolved, that in the opinion of the parties assembled, not more than three-fourths of the population above the age of twelve years can read; and not one half of the inhabitants above that age can write.'"

Stafford. — "In this town and immediate vicinity there are from 800 to 1,000 children uneducated."

OLDHAM. — The neglected state of education at this town has already been noticed, in the section on Sunday schools; where we gave an extract from the Report of one of the Factory Commissioners, in which Oldham and Stockport are contrasted, as well in the state of education at each, as in the conduct of the working classes. The riots which took place at Oldham last year, and in which one of the factories was attacked and in part destroyed, are additional proof of the bad state of the town.

BRISTOL. — Under the head *Adult Schools*, we have given some facts illustrative of the low state of education in this city. (See page 199.)

LEEDS.—This town does not appear to be distinguished either favourably or unfavourably as regards education. As Leeds, however, is an important town, we shall give in our Appendix the result of some inquiries we have made into the state of education there, through the medium of a family that has done much towards raising the standard of intellect and virtue in the whole district of which Leeds is the centre. We refer to the Messrs. Baines, whose public services, like those of the Messrs. Strutt at Derby, afford a proof how much may be accomplished by a few enlightened men, strongly imbued with a desire to do good, and acting in unison with each other.

It will be seen by the answers to our queries contained in the Appendix, that many old inhabitants of Leeds are of opinion that the wealth and comfort of the people have decidedly increased in their time; that riots have become less and less frequent, and that

crime generally has diminished; and that these improvements are due, in part at least, to education. Until our official records of crime contain entries of *all offences committed*, instead of those only the perpetrators of which are detected and brought to punishment, we shall have more confidence in such evidence as we have given (namely, the opinions of elderly intelligent persons) on the increase or decrease of crime, than in reports founded on our public records. The single fact that thirty years ago it was dangerous to be abroad in the neighbourhood of London after nightfall,*—nay, that in large districts of London itself a person walking about in the evening ran great risk of being knocked down and robbed; whereas at present a robbery is a rare occurrence, and the feeling of apprehension has almost disappeared;—a single fact like this outweighs, in our estimation, the entire value of any deduction to be made by comparing the lists of committals and convictions at the present time, and at the time we have referred to.

Before we can safely draw any inference from comparing the number of committals and convictions at one time with that of another, we must take into consideration, not only with what degree of vigilance the law is administered at the two different periods, but also what is the state of the law itself. An increase in knowledge and an improved tone of moral feeling may cause that to be regarded as an offence, and pu-

* On the principal roads leading to London, there were, within the recollection of very many now alive, large inns at a distance of about ten miles from the metropolis, which depended for their custom on travellers halting for the night to avoid the danger of passing along the roads in the immediate neighbourhood of London after sunset.

nished as such, which formerly passed unnoticed; and *vice versâ*. Cruelty to the lower animals, for example, might, until lately, be indulged in with impunity: now the perpetrator is prosecuted as an offender.

Again, under certain circumstances, not always very nicely inquired into, a man could formerly be forced from his home and carried abroad as a soldier; any resistance on his part being treated as a crime. Such a transaction at the present time, however immutable the principles upon which its justice depends, would appear very different in the eye of the law. The former culprit would now stand forth as the indignant prosecutor; while the former complainant must be satisfied to take his stand as prisoner at the bar. The time, we trust, is at hand when in this particular the naval service will be assimilated to the military.

On the other hand, we hope that the imaginary crimes of forestalling and regrating will soon be struck out of our statute-book, and that the Court of Exchequer will find some more profitable occupation than one which but a few months ago was allowed to engross its attention during a whole day; namely, the trial of a person charged with the dire offence of exporting a piece of machinery;—in other words, with the crime of choosing for himself in what market he would sell the fruits of his own talent and industry! We would humbly submit for the calm and dispassionate consideration of all parties concerned,—judges, counsel, witnesses, and jury,—whether their time might not have been employed in a manner at once more profitable to society and more agreeable to themselves, than in the laborious examination which came before

them? Whether, for instance, they would not have better promoted true philosophy, public advantage, and private gratification, by passing the day in a general game at jack-straws, or push-pin?

SOUTHERN AND MIDLAND AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS.

Soon after the agricultural riots of 1830–1, the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society instituted an inquiry into the state of education in the disturbed districts. The result showed that a most lamentable ignorance prevailed. We do not infer from this that the ignorance of the peasantry was the sole cause of the incendiary fires, but we fully believe that it was a necessary link in the chain. Other ingredients were not wanting in the caldron of mischief—but this was required to make the gruel thick and slab.

The following is extracted from the Report of the British and Foreign School Society for 1831.

Agricultural Districts.—"From these communications," (those received in consequence of the inquiries spoken of,) "as well as from information derived from a variety of other sources, your committee are painfully convinced that the country is far from being educated. The state of the agricultural districts generally is very distressing. The most debasing ignorance prevails, to an extent which could not be credited were it not verified by the closest investigation. The facts which have been elicited respecting the moral and intellectual state of those counties which have been disgraced by riots and acts of incendiarism are truly affecting; and yet they are but a fair repre-

sentation of the actual state of our peasantry. We call ourselves an enlightened nation, an educated people, and yet, out of nearly *seven hundred* prisoners put on trial in four counties, upwards of *two hundred and sixty* were as ignorant as the savages of the desert—they could not read a single letter. Of the whole seven hundred, only *one hundred and fifty* could write or read with ease; and (in the words of one of the chaplains to the gaols) 'nearly the whole number were totally ignorant with regard to the nature and obligations of true religion.'"

The information respecting the ignorance of the prisoners in the disturbed districts is given more in detail in a subsequent part of the Report. It is as follows:

BERKSHIRE—"Of 138 prisoners committed to Reading gaol, 25 only could write, 37 only could read, and 76 could neither read nor write: 120 were under 40 years of age, varying from 35 down to 18 years.

"Of the 30 prisoners tried at Abingdon, 6 only could read and write, 11 could read imperfectly; the remainder were wholly uneducated."

BUCKS.—"Of the 79 prisoners convicted at Aylesbury, only 30 could read and write."

HANTS.—"Of 332 committed for trial at Winchester, 105 could neither read nor write: nearly the whole number were deplorably ignorant of even the rudiments of religious knowledge."

KENT.—"About one half of the prisoners committed to Maidstone gaol could neither read nor write; and nearly the whole were ignorant with regard to the nature and obligations of true religion."

SUSSEX.—"Of 50 prisoners put on trial at Lewes,

13 only could read and write; 12 could read imperfectly; only one could read well."

The following is taken from one of the communications received by the committee during their inquiries. It is stated to be from a highly respected country clergyman.

"My parish is large; the population above 1,300, all poor, and *hitherto entirely uneducated.* I have to struggle not only with the prejudices of the farmers and the people themselves, but also (my own income being limited) with the difficulty of obtaining books. I purpose establishing a girl's school, which will be chiefly at the expense of myself, aided by such contributions as I can raise, and a small weekly payment from the children; and a boy's school, which may be grafted upon a foundation endowment, I propose also to extend. Could you see the state of this large population but for one hour, you would sympathise in my desire to educate them. As gross darkness broods over every class as could possibly be witnessed in any heathen land."

In our section on Sunday schools we had occasion to insert an extract from Mr. Chadwick's Report, in which he speaks of the ignorance and want of education among the peasantry in the disturbed districts. This evidence is applicable to our present object: it will be found by referring to page 110.

Mr. Althans gave the following evidence respecting the state of education in the agricultural districts before the Education Committee:—

"From your extensive knowledge of the population over which you inspected schools, what should you say of the extent of instruction which the whole popula-

tion have acquired, whether it is small or sufficient, adequate or inadequate?—I should say, not half adequate to the wants of the country; but I speak of school education as the basis of other education; I think that people have been more educated by conversation than by anything else."

"Taking the population generally, what proportion of them should you suppose were reading with such facilities, that reading is a pleasure to them?—That is rather difficult to answer without making a local inquiry: I have no doubt that there are a great many adults that cannot read, but I should not like to venture a positive opinion without making a local inquiry."

"Generally speaking, do you think the local population of the agricultural districts, for example, are enabled to read with that degree of facility which renders reading a pleasure to them?—I should say, that in the agricultural districts there are a vast number of labourers that cannot read at all."

ESSEX.—Mr. Davis (the founder and supporter of the excellent school in Gower's Walk), in his examination before the Education Committee says,—

"I have attended to that which has been said upon the subject of education at different times, and have been sorry that something has not been devised which should embrace the lowest classes in society. I would give my money and my time to embracing, by any means which could be devised, that class; for I find them (especially among the agricultural population) in a most deplorable state of ignorance up to the present moment, notwithstanding everything which has been done. I act as a magistrate in the county of

Essex, and I regret to say, that nine times in ten, when any poor fellows come before me, they cannot write, and I am obliged to take their cross; in many towns and villages I fear such is also the case: we have not yet either forced or duly encouraged that lowest and most wretched class to receive education."

KENT.—The following is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Hickson before the Poor Law Commissioners:

"My observations have been almost confined to Kent, where I certainly was not prepared, some time back, for such a state of semi-barbarism as I have since found within 25 miles of London. I had not expected to find in the present day so small a proportion of labourers who possessed the elementary knowledge of reading and writing. In the parish of Stanstead, I believe, not above one labourer in fifteen can read and write. Here and there one or two can read a little in the New Testament; but even these could hardly read the direction of a letter. When the inlets to knowledge are thus blocked up, it is not a matter of wonder that the ideas of this class of men should be very limited; that their conversation should be distinguished by swearing and obscenity, or that they should not have acquired habits of prudence and forecast. The frequency of illegitimate births, and the unconcernedness with which the women will converse to a stranger of the children they have had before marriage, may be mentioned as an evidence of the low state of moral cultivation."

BERKSHIRE.—We take the following from the evidence of the Rev. H. C. Curtis, Rector of Tadworth, before the Poor Law Commissioners:—

"The present condition of the labouring classes within the rural districts with which I am acquainted is certainly very deficient in respect to education: for the case is, either that some parishes are so small that the number of children is not sufficient to maintain a master and mistress for a day school; or else, if the parishes are larger, the houses are widely scattered, and the roads or footpaths so bad that the children are not able to attend school regularly in the winter, if there is a school of some sort; or else (and this, I am sorry to say, is the most common cause) the farmers, and even the resident wealthy proprietors, generally speaking, have not sufficient zeal in the cause to induce them to subscribe enough for the maintenance of a regular school establishment. There are, however, in most parishes, besides Sunday schools, day schools for girls, kept by females on their own account, or supported more or less by their benevolent neighbours. Boys, it is true, when infants, are allowed to attend; but soon becoming unmanageable by a mistress, at the age of seven or eight years they quit school, and are employed to scare away birds from the corn-fields, to keep cows, &c.: and this on Sundays as well as other days of the week. Thus they soon forget what little they may have learnt. At ten or twelve, according to their size and strength, they are hired to drive the plough; and though they live under the farmer's roof, in very many instances they are suffered to attend church or not, as they please. Hence I may say, that very few of the men at the age of eighteen can read or write, or even say small portions of the Church Catechism, such as the creed and the ten commandments: but the generality of the girls

are able to read, and some to write, tolerably well; because they commonly attend the school till they are twelve or fourteen years of age; at which time they go to service."

HEREFORDSHIRE.—It is stated as the result of an extensive personal examination made by the committee of the Herefordshire Auxiliary Bible Society, that of 41,017 individuals visited, only 24,222 could read with ease.

DEVONSHIRE.—A deplorable want of education among the mass of the peasantry may be assumed from the unlettered state of the farmers and others called upon to act as overseers of the poor.

The following are the observations of Mr. Charles P. Villiers, M.P., who visited Devonshire in the capacity both of Revising Barrister and Visiting Poor Law Commissioner:—

"I might venture to state that one-fourth of the overseers whose lists came before me could not write, and in one instance the parish rates amount to nearly 7,000*l.* annually. I acted as Revising Barrister again this year in the south of Devon, and my observations here with regard to the overseers correspond with those of the North Division.

"Some lists were made without any attention to the simplest requisites of the Act, others without signatures at all, and the apology which was constantly offered by others for them, as well as by themselves, was that they were no scholars, and that it was not to be expected that persons in their station of life would perform the duty better."—*Appendix to Poor Law Report*, A. No. 23, p. 50 *a*.

Pershore district (*Worcestershire*).—In this district,

including a population of 14,000 persons, spread over *sixty-six* parishes, there are only twelve schoolmasters. *(See Mr. Villiers's Report.)* This neglected state of education appears to be coincident with a want of skill and industry among the peasantry. The following is the reply of Major-general Marriot, to the inquiry of the Poor Law Commissioners, on the question of improvement or deterioration in the habits of the peasantry as labourers:—

"Industry is stationary. If employed by the day, they work as little, and if by the piece not more, I should say, than those of any county in England. Three of them would not do near the work performed by two in more northern counties."

Newport Pagnell, Buckinghamshire.—The state of education in this district appears to be exceedingly low. We are indebted for the following particulars to a friend residing in the neighbourhood of Newport Pagnell, who has taken the trouble to visit the different parishes and make inquiries on the spot.

"I forward to you, in answer to the inquiries contained in your letter of the 22nd ult., the particulars, as far as I am able to obtain them, relative to the educational condition of several parishes round me.

"First, as to that in which I reside—Stokegoldington and Ekely in Bucks. The population in 1831 was 912, and must now be upwards of 1,000. The number of paupers all the year round is 42; and the averge number of labourers out of employ and receiving parish allowance is 30. The total cost of the poor this year has been 900*l.* 10 in 100 of the labourers and their wives can read, and 1 in 90 can write; 50 in 100 children can read, and 2 in 100 can write. There

is a Sunday school at the church, containing about 80 children, whose attendance, however, is very irregular: reading only is taught. There is also a Sunday school at the meeting-house, of upwards of 100 boys and girls, whose attendance is more regular. The children make much more progress here than at the other school, and they are clean and orderly: the instruction, however, is confined to reading. A private teacher of reading, writing, and the first lessons of arithmetic, has 10 or 12 farmers' children at 6*d.* per week.

"*Gayhurst*, with a population of 118, and *Lathbury*, with a population of 172, (the adjoining parishes,) have no school whatever; nor has *Chicherty* (population 218), which adjoins Lathbury. *Hanslope* (Bucks), population 1,623, has an endowed school for *six* boys, to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic; but the teacher, an old shoemaker, is incompetent to teach either. There are two Sunday schools in which reading is taught, and one private school for girls. Of the adult labourers and their wives in Hanslope parish, only *one in six* is able to read, and *one in ten* able to write."

After giving the particulars of the state of education in some other parishes, our correspondent sums up as follows:—

"In the whole of the above parishes, forming an area of 13 miles by 7, there is but one school where the children of the poor are taught writing and the elements of numbers."

No question relating directly to the state of education was sent among the queries issued by the Poor Law Commissioners. The question, however, as to whether agricultural labourers are found to be better

or worse workmen than formerly, has occasionally led to remarks on the state of education among them. Such remarks are much less frequent in the replies from the midland and southern agricultural districts than from the northern districts; and this might be expected; since the connexion between education and knowledge on the one hand, and industry and skill on the other, is much more likely to occur to intelligent, well-informed men, than to the obtuse and ignorant: and there can be no doubt that the former are more commonly met with in all ranks of society in the northern rural districts, than in the midland and southern. Among the endless complaints, indeed, in the replies from these latter districts, of the idleness and worthlessness of the labourers, a fling is occasionally had at education itself; some of the respondents thinking that the laziness and profligacy of the labourers are caused by *excess of education!* Excess of education in the South of England! We can venture to assure such alarmists, that a superabundance of knowledge is the last thing they have any reason to apprehend either in their neighbours or themselves. In addition to the facts already adduced, we refer them to the following extracts from the Report of the British and Foreign School Society for 1834, which show how little need there is to raise the mud-banks of prejudice against the stream of knowledge, and how distant must be the fear of inundation. The general source of information is private correspondence.

BEDFORDSHIRE. *Dunstable.*—"It has been found, by a diligent canvass, that the children of the labouring class in Dunstable, and the neighbouring villages and hamlets, are in a deplorable degree destitute of

daily instruction; and that their parents are desirous that they should, if possible, possess that invaluable benefit."

DORSET. *Shaftesbury.*—"The population of this town, and parishes immediately adjacent, is near 5,000; and the only public school is an endowed one for 20 children. Several hundreds are certainly growing up in ignorance."

KENT. *Dover.*—"We have recently caused a domiciliary inquiry to be made throughout the borough, and the results of that inquiry have proved that upwards of 800 children of both sexes stand in need of the means of elementary education."

LINCOLNSHIRE. *Grantham.*—"In the town of Grantham and the hamlets adjoining, there is a population of about 8,000 souls; and, after deducting the existing schools, there must be 1,300 children without any daily instruction whatever; and these chiefly of the humbler classes. We are situated in the midst of a thickly-peopled neighbourhood for an agricultural district, and look with great pain upon the state of the labouring classes around us, many of whom are sunk in ignorance and vice.

MIDDLESEX. *Brentford.*—"We have just completed an examination into the educational necessities of certain districts in this town. Our first visit comprised 120 houses, which were taken indiscriminately: we found 93 adults unable to read, and 126 children quite uneducated. Our second visit was to 69 houses. The number of children in these families under twelve years of age was 222: of these 82 were going to schools of one kind or other; 89 were uneducated. We believe that there are, in this town and immediate

neighbourhood, not less than 1,000 children uninstructed, and fear that not one-half of the population can either read or write."

Another place in the neighbourhood of London—a village containing 272 families—is mentioned in the Report for 1833; and it is stated that of 1,467 persons who form the population, only 562 were found able to read.

We shall conclude our notice of the state of education in the southern and midland agricultural districts with a letter which we have received from the Rev. Mr. Jeston, descriptive of the state of education at Cholesbury (Buckinghamshire) at the time when, by means of the letters which Mr. Jeston addressed to the Poor Law Commissioners, and which were published in the Report, public attention was first drawn to this wretched, poverty-stricken village. Amidst the ills to which this village was a prey, most fortunate was it in being blessed by the presence of a kind, zealous, and enlightened pastor, who, by great sacrifices in his own person to the interests of his parishioners, was able to give effect to his appeals to others in their behalf.

The following is Mr. Jeston's letter, including replies to the queries which we took the liberty of sending to him: —

"Cholesbury Parsonage, Great Berkhamstead,
'June 16th, 1834.

"My dear Sir,

"I feel much pleasure in laying before you such information as is in my power, respecting the state of education at Cholesbury in 1833."

Mr. Jeston then gives answers to our queries as follows:—

"Adults.

"1. What portion of the adult population could read with sufficient ease to enjoy what they perused? —Only four males (inclusive of the late and present parish clerks) and two females."*

"2. What portion could read, though with difficulty?—Not more than eight."

"3. What portion could write fluently?—Not one."

"4. What portion could write, though with difficulty?—Three only."

"5. Was there any cheap library for the poor? or any means by which they could readily procure the cheap publications, as the Penny Magazine, &c.?—None at all."

"6. What portion of the adult population had received any education extending beyond mere reading and writing?—Not an individual."

"7. Had anything and what been done by means of education to induce habits of industry and prudence? —Nothing at all."

"8. Did any provisions exist for promoting innocent amusement among the labourers?—None."

"9. How far were the better educated of the labourers distinguished from the others, particularly as regards crime, insubordination, pauperism, and drunkenness?—In every respect they were superior characters to those who could neither read nor write; especially as regarded habits of industry and sobriety. One, though possessing a large family, and enjoying no greater advantages than the rest of the paupers, was less burthensome to the parish than any other man with a family: one kept himself entirely off the

* The population of the parish at the last census (1831) was 127.

parish books: the other was a bricklayer and parish clerk, and maintained himself and wife and family very respectably. The fourth (the late parish clerk), on account of his great age (upwards of 82), was allowed a small sum weekly: he is also a very sober and respectable character."

"Children.

"10. What portion of the children were growing up without receiving any education?—None."

"11. What were the nature and extent of the education that was given to the others? — The education given to the children in Cholesbury is very slight: they are taught only to read. The children, without exception, are taught to plait straw as soon almost as they are capable of holding the straws; and about ten or twenty minutes of each day is dedicated by the old woman who teaches them the straw plait, in teaching each child its book and catechism. Whilst the others are plaiting, there is generally one being taught to read.

"The same mode of education is pursued in almost all the adjoining parishes; there being no other daily school in any of them. If the woman who keeps the school happen to be a churchwoman, the children generally attend church; if a dissenter, then they attend the meeting-house.

"I have bitterly to lament the want of a better source of education in my poor parish; but I am so destitute of neighbours to assist me in the expense of a daily school, and my own income is so small, as at present to preclude the possibility of my establishing one. If I could establish a weekly school, I should still wish it to be also a school of industry, as at present. The persons

to whom the education of the children is committed, I should wish to see superior to the generality of those on whom at present it devolves. I know not how to account for it, but it is certainly the case, that the persons who keep these straw-plait schools are oftener dissenters than churchwomen.

"The Agricultural Employment Institution has effected a very great change in my parish: the habits and morals of my poor men are certainly altering for the better. I have every reason to think that the humane intentions of the society will be crowned with success; and that the poor men benefiting under it, instead of being a set of paupers, will be enabled to provide for themselves and their families, and contribute to the parish funds, instead of taking from them."

WALES.

We possess but little information of a precise kind respecting the state of education in Wales. We believe, however, that it is at a low ebb. We are indebted to a friend at Neath in Glamorganshire for the following particulars respecting the state of education in that district; and this is all we are prepared to lay before our readers:—

"I cannot venture to speak as to the progress of education in Wales generally. In this district, I may safely say, nearly the whole of the rising population are receiving instruction of some kind, either weekly at the National and Lancasterian schools, or at the Sunday schools of the various dissenting chapels. The extent of the education to the working classes in the

Sunday schools is confined to reading, principally in the Bible; in many instances, in the Welsh language. In the charity schools, reading, writing, and arithmetic (as far as the rule of three) are taught to the boys; to the girls, reading and writing. Of the adult male population in our district, of twenty-five to thirty years of age, at least three-fourths are able to read with sufficient ease to enjoy what they read; the remaining fourth-part may be able to read with difficulty. Among the labouring class few read excepting on a Sunday, and their reading is nearly confined to theological subjects. The class immediately above labourers,—mechanics and working tradesmen,—enjoy more varied reading, and are purchasers of cheap periodicals to a larger extent than might be supposed. Almost all the elderly persons in the lower classes, both labourers and mechanics, are unable to write, and many of them even to read. Very few also of the women retain or practise the learning acquired at school. I think, however, I can observe a great desire in all classes to have their children educated in the best mode within their reach, and to allow the children to remain to a later period at the schools than was formerly the practice: they are also without difficulty induced to contribute a small weekly payment. The people in this district are much more civilised than they were twenty years ago. Street-fighting, brutal behaviour, and bad habits generally, which then existed in full force, are now nearly extinct. The general condition of the people is improved. Crime of any atrocity is of very rare occurrence: riots and incendiarism occasionally exist in the iron districts, but are unknown here. Drunkenness and superstition we have in full

vigour: the latter, however, is giving way in very many instances; the former is quite the vice of the lower classes, and the fruitful source of misery to them. Habits of truth and of good principles want much to be introduced into the systems of education for the lower classes, as well as for the higher classes. Our charity schools do not sufficiently inculcate the moral virtues."

Before closing this short notice of the state of education and public morals in Wales, we think it well to make a few observations on an assertion which we have often heard made, that the state of things in Wales disproves, to a certain extent, the beneficial influence of education: inasmuch as while the Welsh people are less educated than the English, they are nevertheless more moral; as is shown by the small number of criminal offences in Wales.

We admit that the Welsh are as a people less educated than the English; and we will also admit that there is a less amount of crime among them in proportion to the population: but we do not agree that this is owing to the comparative ignorance of the people; nor can we subscribe to the general proposition, that because in one country there is a less amount of positive crime than in another, therefore the first is necessarily in a better state than the second.

Let us take the most common class of crimes—theft. Before a theft can be committed three circumstances must exist in union: first, it is tolerably evident *there must be something to steal;* secondly, there must be a desire to rob; and thirdly, there must be the power. Now as regards poor countries, like Wales, it is often assumed, with more haste than logic, that a

small number of robberies argues the absence of a desire to steal, and consequently a good moral state in the inhabitants: whereas on closer investigation it may appear, that the rare occurrence of robbery is really to be traced to the non-existence of one of the other essential requisites to the commission of the offence: and that, in fact, to praise the morality of the people under these circumstances is very much like commending the peaceable demeanour of a man in the stocks.

Not only too is Wales a poor country (possessing therefore but little comparatively to steal) but owing to the scattered distribution of the inhabitants, and to the consequent absence of a system of organization and a division of labour among thieves, there must be great difficulty in disposing of stolen articles; and the chance of detection is therefore much greater. In other words, not only is there much less to steal in Wales than in England, but it is more difficult to steal any portion of that little.

Under these circumstances it is by no means safe, however much we may desire to come to the conclusion, to infer great honesty in the Welsh people, because but few robberies are committed. We fear, indeed, that there is too much positive evidence of another kind to allow of our even leaving the cause of the rarity of robberies a doubtful question. There is in Wales one species of robbery which is as readily effected there as in England—we mean that of female virtue and happiness: and the returns of the cases of bastardy show that robbery of this kind—the only one perhaps in which the two countries are upon the same footing—abounds much more in Wales than in Eng-

land. This fact alone, without inquiring into the truth of the charges of the general prevalence of habits of low cunning and petty dishonesty among the Welsh people, satisfies us that we are not called upon to subscribe to any inferiority in point of morals on our part to the Welsh; although we may rejoice at every step which they take in the common race of improvement.

But surely the absence of crime, after all, can only show that a nation is not below mediocrity—that it is not positively bad. And this we trust is not the summit of human aspirations; nay, we hope and believe that in most countries—especially in England—this point has long since been passed: and that we must look upon the amount of crime committed, not as affording an index of the grade at which the country stands in the scale of morality, but merely as a necessary subtraction from the claim to positive merit which it possesses for the daily and hourly exercise of noble and generous virtues. In this point of view surely the comparatively educated people of England —that nation which, in addition to the endless munificent establishments for diminishing human pain and adding to human happiness which it has erected in its own land, has in turn rendered aid to almost every country on the face of the earth,—not as an act of gratitude—for England never received nor desired, nor was in a state for requiring foreign assistance—but impelled by generous feelings and a sympathy in the sufferings of others—surely such a country need not review its position with shame, nor bow in deference to other countries in which much less positive good is effected, but in which, possibly, the direct amount of wrong inflicted may also be less.

SCOTLAND.

THERE can be no doubt that in Scotland the rural population, at least, is much better educated than the same class in England; though it must be admitted that neither the amount of instruction given nor the number of recipients justifies the opinion usually entertained on the subject in this country. As respects the urban population, indeed, we doubt whether our Northern neighbours are at all in advance of ourselves.

The reader is of course aware that there is a legal provision for education in Scotland. The heritors (landowners) in every parish are required to provide a school house, and pay a schoolmaster: the minimum salary, however, is as low as 24*l.* per annum,* and the house, which is to furnish a dwelling for the master and a school-room for the boys, need not contain more than two rooms; so that the burden which the law imposes on those who enjoy the whole rental of the country is not very weighty. It is pleasing to learn that the heritors generally do somewhat more than the law demands of them. Thus, though the salary to the schoolmaster might, as we have seen, be kept down in each instance as low as 24*l.* the average amount actually given is about 28*l.* Again, the number of parishes in Scotland is 907, while the number of parochial schools

* By a law passed in 1802, the schoolmaster's salary, as expressed in money, is regulated from time to time by the average price of wheat during the previous period of twenty-five years. The minimum salary, as determined by the price of wheat during the twenty-five years ending in 1802, was 16*l.* only.

is 1,005: though we are not certain that this excess of schools over parishes is owing to the liberality of the land-owners.

Taking the average salary of the schoolmasters at 28*l.* a year, the total amount paid in salaries must be rather more than 28,000*l.*; and if we estimate the expense of keeping the school-houses in repair at 4,000*l.* a year, the total (32,000*l.*) will express the entire cost of the national provision for education.

Whatever may be thought of the sufficiency of this provision for the education of the people at the time it was made, (about a century and a half ago,) considering the scantiness of the population and the poverty of the country at that time, there can be no doubt that it is far from being adequate to present wants, and that the country has now ample means for enlarging and improving it; for great as has been the increase in population since the time when the present plan of national education was introduced, the increase in the wealth of the country has been much greater: and moreover, it must be borne in mind that the cost, per head, of education is less for a large number than for a small one. Something has been done towards supplying the deficiency, by opening Lancasterian schools, supported by voluntary subscriptions, in different parts of the country; and in Edinburgh the Sessional Schools (so called because they are under the direction of the church sessions of the different parishes) were established with a similar view. (These latter are the schools in which Mr. Wood has succeeded in effecting such important improvements in the manner of teaching.) Still the provision for education in Scotland has by no means kept pace with the increase in population,

and the growing demand for knowledge among all ranks of the people. Many thousands, we fear, are growing up in some towns without any education whatever. Mr. Colquhoun, in his speech in the House of Commons in June last year (1834), estimates that there are 20,000 in this state in Glasgow alone; the whole population of that town being about 200,000. In Paisley, if Mr. Colquhoun's statements be correct, education is in a still worse state; for though the absolute number of the uneducated is not so large as at Glasgow, yet compared with the population the number is much greater. The population of Paisley is 57,000; and of these, according to Mr. Colquhoun, no fewer than 14,000 are growing up without education. Mr. Colquhoun mentions other towns also, as Perth and Dundee, in which, he says, education is at a low ebb. He complains also of the state of education in the rural districts; not only as respects the Highlands, where we could not look for much at present, notwithstanding the exertions of the General Assembly, but also as regards the Lowlands. The worst instances of the latter kind mentioned by Mr. Colquhoun are those of two parishes, one in Dumbartonshire, and the other in Berwickshire: in the first, the fraction of the population at school is stated to be one-thirteenth, and in the second, one-fifteenth; whereas, if all between the ages of five and fifteen were at school, the fraction would be one-fifth.

After giving these and other instances of deficient education, Mr. Colquhoun remarks as follows:— "Such, then, is the state of education, and such its enormous deficiency both in the towns and rural districts of Scotland. I am aware that a different im-

pression prevails—that Scotland ranks high in the estimation of all on the subject of education. I am sorry to disturb that impression; but I feel that it is the best and truest policy to exhibit clearly the amount of the evil, in order that you may be induced to apply yourselves to the remedy."

We do not know what means Mr. Colquhoun took to assure himself of the accuracy of the foregoing statements, and the other information on which he draws the conclusions just quoted; and we are inclined to think, from information we have derived from other sources, that Mr. Colquhoun's description of the state of education in Scotland is too unfavourable. A gentleman who has paid much attention to the subject assures us that he very seldom meets with a person in Scotland, whatever his station in life, who cannot at least read easily; in fact, he believes that the proportion of those who have not made this acquisition is not more than one in fifty. (This statement is not, of course, intended to apply to the Highlands.) On the other hand, the gentlemen who went to Scotland as Factory Commissioners were much disappointed at the state of education in such of the large towns as they had occasion to visit; though at many of the villages and small towns which depend on large country factories, they found a state of things which was highly gratifying. In reference to the general deficiency in education, the Central Board of Commissioners speak as follows:—

"Few will be prepared to expect the statements that will be found on this head [education] in regard to Scotland; where the education of the children is neglected to a far greater extent than is commonly be-

lieved; where only a very small number can write; where, though perhaps the majority can read, many cannot; and where, with some honourable exceptions, it seems certain that the care once bestowed on the instruction of the young has ceased to be exemplary. The Reports of the Commissioners for Scotland, who will be found to have kept this subject continually before their view, are decisive on this head."

It is impossible, with the evidence before us, to form anything like a precise idea of the point which education has actually reached; but we think we are perfectly safe in concluding as we have done, that as regards the rural population at least, Scotland is far in advance of this country. We do not know of any statement, indeed, which would lead to a different belief.

That the rural districts in Scotland should be in a tolerably good state with respect to education is readily explained by the circumstance that the national provision for education depends on extent of district, and not on the amount of population. As we have already mentioned, every parish has its public school; but whether the parish contains 500 inhabitants or 50,000, the legal provision is the same—the land-owners in the latter instance, as in the former, not being required to do more than to maintain a school-house containing two rooms, and with about a quarter of an acre of land attached to it, and to provide a schoolmaster with a salary of 24*l.* a year.

Education is not compulsory by law, but in many parts it is looked upon as a necessary of life, and public opinion would strongly condemn a man who did not send his children to school. Professor Pillans gives

the following evidence on this point, and some others connected with it:—

"Is it the uniform practice for parents to send their children to school?—Almost universal, wherever they can: I think the exceptions to the habit are very rare indeed, and can only exist in Scotland among the most depraved part of the population. In the country districts, I should say, there is no such thing; a man would be looked upon as a monster who could keep his child from means of instruction within his reach."

"Is there any compulsion used for that purpose?—None."

"Has it not frequently happened that parents have submitted to great privations in order to enable their children to receive education?—Yes; I believe it is an object which a Scotchman seldom loses sight of, both when he thinks of marrying and settling in life, and at every future period, the laying aside of a sum for the education of his children."

"Do you trace the consequences of that habit among the people of Scotland in the character of the labouring people of that country?—I think very decidedly; and that we owe the morality of our rural districts in particular almost entirely to that habit, handed down from father to son; so that we have scarcely any rural population who are not perfectly aware of the importance of education, and not willing to make sacrifices to secure it to their children."

Education Report, p. 37.

Such part of the expense of his child's education as consists in the cost of books, &c. the parent has to pay himself; the usual charge being about 10*s.* a year, though sometimes much smaller. In cases of great

poverty the charge is often dispensed with altogether. The ordinary course of instruction does not extend beyond reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, and sometimes a little Latin; the demand for which last, indeed, is dying away. By paying 1*l.* a year instead of 10*s.* a parent may have his child instructed in geography, grammar, and some other branches of education: and by additional payments of very moderate amount he has often an opportunity of having him taught geometry, French, Greek, &c.

The middle classes avail themselves of the parochial schools to some extent; but the generality, influenced partly by a desire to give their children a better education than can there be obtained, and yet more, it is feared, by a spirit of exclusion, send their children to private schools.

As a means of testing the reading character of the Scotch, we have referred to the revenue returns to see what quantity of writing and printing paper is manufactured in Scotland. We find that the quantity is in nearly the same proportion, compared with the population, as in England and Wales. In Scotland the average annual quantity during the three years ending with 1833 was 7,100,000 lbs.; in England and Wales it was 40,600,000 lbs.; the population of Scotland being about two millions and a half, and that of England and Wales about fourteen millions and a half. Thus in both countries the quantity is exceedingly near to $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. per head of population. From this fact, taken alone, one would infer that the Scotch are not more a reading people than the English; but when the more thrifty habits of the Scotch are borne in mind, it will be admitted that an equal number of books and news-

papers in proportion to the population argues a much greater number of readers. In the pastoral districts even the cheapest publications, such as Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, (the price of which is only three-halfpence,) are handed from one shepherd to another until they have travelled over quite an extensive district. By means too of their excellent contrivance of itinerating libraries, the inhabitants of the poorer districts are supplied with a succession of books at very little expense.

If then, under these circumstances, the Scotch consume as much paper in proportion to the population as the English, we may reasonably conclude that they *read* much more than we do.

STATE OF PUBLIC MORALS, &c. IN SCOTLAND COMPARED WITH THEIR STATE IN ENGLAND.

Crime.—It would be difficult to find a country which has made such rapid progress in the diminution of crime, the establishment of general security, the increase of public wealth, and the diffusion of comforts, as Scotland: and this, be it remarked, has been concurrent with increased and increasing attention to the education of the people. At the beginning of the last century Scotland swarmed with gipsies and other vagabonds, who lived chiefly by stealing, and who often committed violent robberies and murders. Of these pests to society it was estimated that there were not fewer than two hundred thousand. Besides these there were the more gentlemanly, though less tolerable robbers, such as the notorious Rob Roy, who made no more ado about seizing another man's cattle

than a grazier does of driving from market a drove of oxen for which he has paid every shilling demanded. And lastly, it must be recollected that a large portion of the people were divided into clans, headed too often by ignorant despots, and ready at any moment to fall like madmen one upon another, killing, burning, and laying waste all before them.

It is difficult to believe that it is still less than a hundred years since Scotland, now so peaceful, and containing a population on which a just and enlightened government may implicitly rely for the maintenance of order and public security, was the scene of a political outbreak which spread alarm and consternation through the whole island, and which in a few weeks caused more blood to be spilt than has flowed during the whole subsequent period; and all this without the most distant idea of advancing one solitary principle of good government. It would be curious to speculate on the number that would be found ready at the present day to join the standard of an adventurer bound on an enterprise such as that in which Charles Edward was engaged. Certainly not more than could be comfortably accommodated within the walls of Bedlam; to which place, instead of to the scaffold, we hope they would be consigned.

A very important and interesting work — the New Statistical Account of Scotland — now in course of publication, contains a great deal of instructive matter on almost all points relating to the progress and present condition of the Scotch people:—population, average length of life, education, habits and character of the people; extent of crime, drunkenness, and pauperism; state of agriculture, manufactures, &c. &c. are all treat-

ed of apparently with great care and fidelity. The account is drawn up by the clergymen of Scotland, each writing the portion relating to his own parish. We do not know to what degree the report may be relied on; but judging from the laborious character of the Scotch clergy, and considering the opportunities they must possess, in the constant intercourse which is kept up between them and their parishioners, of obtaining information, we should hope and expect that a good deal of confidence may safely be put in it. A principal source of confidence with us is the minute nature of much of the information. Still it is most probable that the account contains many errors, and that its general complexion is somewhat too florid. Those who drew it up were not, of course, chosen with reference to the peculiar qualifications best suited for the office; and, as the ministers of the parishes, with a kind of responsibility for the moral conduct of their flock, their judgment was likely to be influenced to some extent by their desire to see everything in a favourable light. Again, those who had the best accounts to give would be likely to be the first to prepare and forward them: it would probably therefore be unsafe to take that portion of the work which has already been published as a sample of the whole. Still, after making every allowance which the foregoing considerations would suggest, the matter contained in the Statistical Account must be admitted to evince very great improvement. Forty years ago, a statistical report somewhat similar to the present one was drawn up and published; and this, together with the recollection of the older inhabitants, affords the means of instituting a comparison between the state of things

at the two periods; and in every particular—in education, intelligence, moral conduct, means of production, and amount of comforts enjoyed,—an extraordinary and gratifying improvement is manifest. In the latter part of the present section we shall give a few specimens of the report. It must be observed, that the portion of the Statistical Account already published (about one-fifth part of the whole) relates chiefly to agricultural districts, which we have already stated to be, (in Scotland,) to the best of our belief, in a better state than the generality of the manufacturing districts: though we fully believe that the inhabitants of towns possess inherent advantages, by which, under a very good system, they would attain to a much higher degree of excellence than that to which a rural population can aspire.

To proceed to a comparison between the state of the people of Scotland and that of the people of England:—and at present as regards crime. We have before us the returns of the convictions and sentences in Scotland during the last three years. For reasons already mentioned, we consider such returns as but a poor index of the amount of crime;—indeed, as often no index at all. In Scotland, however, as in Massachusetts, the laws are efficiently administered, quite as much so we believe as in England: some information may therefore perhaps be gleaned by comparing the returns for the two countries. We hope that at no distant period measures will be taken to construct authentic registers of all crimes committed, without regard to the non-detection of the offenders; and then we shall have the means of indisputable comparison.

One fact which speaks very well for Scotland is the very small number of cases in which the terrible punishment of death is inflicted. In England and Wales, the average number of executions during the last three years is 41 per annum; in Scotland it is 2: whereas, if the number were in the same proportion to the population as in England and Wales, it would be 7. We will not say that Scotland has reason to be proud of this account, because to us it appears that disgrace must necessarily attach to every country in which the horrible and revolting punishment of death is ever resorted to, or even remains on the statute-book. But if Scotland has small claim to praise, England has much reason for shame and sorrow. There is however some consolation in reflecting, that great as the present number of executions is in England, it is constantly diminishing; owing partly to a reduction in the amount of crime, and partly to an improvement in the intelligence and feeling of the people, the legislature, and the government. The law no longer orders a man to be strangled for stealing a sheep or a horse, or passing a counterfeit coin: and we hope that in each succeeding session of parliament, capital punishment for at least some one offence will not fail to be abolished, until at length our penal code shall become free from all stains of blood.

We observe that the number of persons convicted of murder in Scotland is greater in proportion to the population than in England; the average numbers for the last three years being in England 14 and in Scotland 4 (instead of between 2 and 3). On the other hand, the number convicted of "shooting at, stabbing, wounding, or administering poison with in-

tent to murder," is much greater in England proportionately than in Scotland; though to what extent exactly we are not able to say, owing to the very different classification of offences in the returns for the two countries. The total number of convictions for offences of all kinds is also much greater, in proportion, in England than in Scotland; but many contingent facts must be ascertained and taken into account before any conclusion can safely be drawn from this circumstance.

The foregoing imperfect evidence, together with such other facts as have come to our knowledge, is not sufficient to pronounce a judgment upon. We *believe* that there is less crime in Scotland in proportion to the population than in England, but we do not feel certain that such is the case.

Wealth and Pauperism.—We have already had occasion to notice the rapid progress which Scotland has made in the increase of national wealth. Less favoured by Nature than England, and starting much later in the career of accumulation, she is indeed still much behind this country; but we have little doubt that in rate of progress she has the advantage. Fifty years ago a field of wheat near Edinburgh was a novelty attracting thousands of people to see it; and now agriculture is carried to such a state of perfection in East Lothian as to form a pattern to the whole world. In their system of banking, too, which has had a most powerful effect in promoting the national prosperity, the Scotch outstripped us: indeed it is not till within the last few years that we have shown that moderate degree of wisdom which

is necessary for adopting an improvement discovered by others.

We have no certain data to go upon, but we believe that both pauperism and mendicity exist to a much less extent in Scotland than in England.

Drunkenness.—We are sorry that we cannot at present congratulate the Scotch on being a sober people. They are, however, in many respects circumstanced like the New Englanders; who, ten years ago, were perhaps as much given to dram-drinking as the Scotch are at present: and we trust that the Scotch will not long allow the stigma of drunkenness to attach to them; but, following the noble example of the New Englanders, break through their present chains, and rise to their proper position in the rank of nations for sobriety as for all other virtues.

Political Tumults, Riots, Incendiarism, &c.—Here the Scotch are certainly before us, notwithstanding the many disgraceful acts which have been perpetrated by the Trades' Unionists of Glasgow and some other towns. We hope it would appear on investigation, that those who took part in these proceedings, the folly of which can only be exceeded by their cruelty, are principally among the unfortunate crowd of uneducated persons spoken of by Mr. Colquhoun. But though the ignorance and violence displayed by Trades' Unions in different towns in Scotland have been as great as those shown by similar bodies in this country, there have been none of those outbreaks among the rural population — none of that barbarous destruction of food and property, which has cast a blot on the character of the English peasantry such as will require many years to remove.

Factory Schools. — Although, as we have before stated, education appears to be at rather a low ebb in the manufacturing towns in Scotland, there are nevertheless in that country, as in England, several large factories, under liberal and enlightened conductors, which may serve as models for the education afforded to the work-people and the attention paid to their comforts and happiness. We shall notice a few of these before giving the extracts from the Statistical Account of Scotland with which we propose to conclude this section.

In Scotland, as in this country, places honourably distinguished in the way we have pointed out, consist very much of large country factories, and the villages dependant upon them. Of these, the establishment of New Lanark has deservedly attracted especial attention. The experiment there tried, first under the direction of Mr. Dale, and afterwards upon a more extensive scale under that of Mr. Owen, is one the result of which is cheering to humanity, as it shows how completely an employer is securing his own interest when he is promoting the education, comforts, and happiness of his work-people. An intimate friend of ours, who visited New Lanark during the time when it was under the immediate care of Mr. Owen, was exceedingly struck with the intelligent, cheerful, contented, and happy state of all the people connected with the factory, whether children or adults: and we are very glad to find by the Reports of the Factory Commissioners who went to New Lanark, that the same admirable effects continue. Mr. Stuart reports as follows:—

"The cotton-mills of New Lanark, on the right

bank of the Clyde, are still under the same excellent management, with a view to the health, education, and general comfort of the workers, which prevailed during the proprietorship of the late philanthropic Mr. David Dale, of Glasgow, who founded the establishment, and of his son-in-law and successor in the mills, the well-known Mr. Robert Owen.

* * * * *

"The school and apartments attached to it are magnificent. I believe they were erected by Mr. Owen at a time when he intended to attempt to carry his peculiar views respecting the social system into effect at New Lanark. The workers are instructed at the school, and have medical assistance, even on ordinary occasions, altogether at the expense of the Company. Every comfort that can attend their situation in life seems to be afforded to them; and they are here entirely free from that unnatural degree of heat which most of all renders factories unhealthy.

"The beauty of the situation of New Lanark is well known: the salubrity of the place may be judged of by those who have the opportunity which Sir David Barry and I enjoyed on Monday, of seeing the workers in the working-rooms, and coming into and going out of the mills. They, most especially the females, are not only apparently in the possession of good health, but many of them (quite as large a proportion as we have seen in any of the extensive well-regulated similar establishments in country districts) are blooming,—as unlike as possible to the pale, languid-looking females too frequently to be found in similar works in great cities.

"The adjoining village, in which the workers live,

belongs to the Company. Its clean appearance and general arrangements are proverbial. The population amounts to about 2,000 persons."— *First Report of Factory Commissioners*, A. 1. pp. 92, 93.

Sir David Barry, speaking of New Lanark, says:—

"A most extraordinary degree of attention is devoted to the education of the children of the workers here, candidates for admission to employment in the mills. They are taught reading, writing, with the elements of geography, music, dancing, natural history, &c. in fine spacious rooms. I witnessed considerable proficiency in some of these branches; and saw eight young persons, from ten to thirteen, dance a quadrille in the very best style, under their dancing-master. Employment in the mill is looked forward to by these children with much ambition, as the reward of diligence in their studies. It is quite clear that Mr. Walker, the managing resident partner, devotes the kindest attention to his people: he is beloved by them all."—*Second Report of Factory Commissioners*, A. 3, p. 53.

Russel Mill, Cupar, Aberdeenshire.—The following attestations of the Ministers of the Parish show the excellent state of education and morals in this establishment:—

"I do hereby certify, that the spinning-mill at Russel Mill, in this parish, was established by Mr. George Moon, in the year 1811; that to my personal knowledge the persons employed in that manufactory have been distinguished by correct moral conduct; that no charge against any of them has been brought before the Kirk Session; and that none of them have come upon the poor-funds of the parish, except one fa-

mily, which had been but a short time at the work, and had been afflicted with two deaths among the children, and that they received only the sum of fifteen shillings and sixpence to assist them in defraying the expenses of the funerals.

(Signed,) "LAURENCE ADAMSON, D.D.
First Minister of Cupar."

"I hereby certify, that since my connexion with the parish of Cupar, six years ago, I have repeatedly visited, and once examined, according to the usages of our church, the people employed in the spinning-work of Mr. Moon, at Russell Mill. On these different occasions I have uniformly found them, of all different ages, most respectful and exemplary in their deportment, and as far advanced in intellectual and religious attainment as the generality of the class of the community to which they belong. Some I have even found entitled to rank among the very foremost in that class. This I attribute very much to the respect which the parents and guardians of the young in that establishment pay to the general customs of the country in regard to their education; and also to a very excellent regulation observed by Mr. Moon, of having a teacher brought to the work for six months in the year, and making it imperative upon the parents and guardians of the children to have them placed so many hours a day under his charge. I can also say, that for the last six years none of the people connected with the work have at any time applied for parochial relief.

(Signed.) "JOHN BERRILL, Minister."

Supplement to Factory Report, part 2. A. 1. p. 47.

At the Plebo Mills, and Abbotshall Mills, Fifeshire, and at the Logie Mills, Forfarshire, the education and comforts of the work-people are attended to, and a favourable report is made of the state of morals among them. Of the work-people at the Plebo Mills it is particularly mentioned, that an application from any one of them for parochial relief is a very rare occurrence. It is worth recording, that at the Logie Mills there is a library containing several hundred volumes under the management of the work-people.

We shall conclude this notice of some of the best-managed among the Scotch factories, with an account of the state of education, comforts, and morals at the Stanley Mills, near Perth, as given by Mr. Stuart, the visiting commissioner, and by Mr. Mather, one of the ministers of the parish: — Mr. Mather's statements being corroborated by the other two ministers.

Mr. Stuart writes as follows:—

"Yesterday we saw the magnificent cotton-mill establishment of Stanley Mill, on the river Tay, about seven miles from Perth, belonging to Messrs. Dennistown, Buchanan, and Company, of Glasgow.

* * * * * * *

"The situation of Stanley Mills is peculiarly beautiful and picturesque, and entitles them to a visit from a stranger, not less on account of the romantic scenery and fine river to be seen from almost every window of this great factory, than on account of the extent and arrangement of their buildings, all their own property, comprehending every description of building necessary for a population of about 2,000 persons, and including a peculiarly handsome church,

erected at an expense of about 3,000*l.* and endowed by the Company; a school, school-house, and very neat range of dwelling-houses for the work-people."

* * * * * *

"The cotton-yarn spun at Stanley Mills is not fine; so that the general temperature is only from fifty-five to sixty-five degrees, excepting in that apartment where webs are dressed for the loom, and a temperature from seventy-five to eighty degrees is required. The sallow complexion of the workers here, who are not numerous, but some of them youthful, proves the confinement in this room to be unfavourable to health. The general appearance of the workers, who were on our account dismissed for dinner at an earlier hour than usual, that we might have a good opportunity of seeing them in passing us in small numbers at the gate, was very gratifying in point of good looks, health, apparel, &c. The porter at the gate, who was a worker at the mills from the period when they were set a-going, is eighty-four years of age, and in the enjoyment of good health: so is his wife, though now eighty-eight. One of the female-workers, who has been at this work for many years, emphatically replied to my question, how she liked it? 'Real weel.'"

The following is the evidence of Mr. Mather:—

"During my residence here, I have had ample opportunity of becoming acquainted with the condition and character of a great proportion of the persons employed in the cotton-works, in my daily intercourse with them, and in my family visitations; and I have no hesitation in declaring it to be my decided conviction, that they are not surpassed in education and morality, and domestic comforts, by persons in the

same rank of life in any part of the country. They have a healthy appearance, are comfortably fed and clothed, and diseases are not more frequent among them than among other classes of the community; the annual mortality for many years falling short of one in every sixty of the population. Crime is scarcely known; and theft is so rare, that the banks of the river are covered with clothes by day and night, without any person to watch them; and even those offences against morality, which are supposed to be a necessary attendant upon a crowded population, being so unfrequent, that seldom more than two cases of bastardy occur in the year in a population of nearly 2,000.

"In point of education, the inhabitants of Stanley will bear a comparison with any part of the country: almost every person can both read and write; and the exceptions, if there are any, must be ascribed to the previous neglect of the parents before coming to settle in Stanley; as a commodious school-room, and an efficient teacher, with a competent salary, have been provided by the Company, and instruction is afforded to all at a very low rate of 2*s.* per quarter: paupers and orphans being educated by their respective parishes, and the children of the more destitute by a society lately instituted to provide instruction and bibles for all within the place who cannot afford to pay for them. The usual practice is for parents to send their children to school from four years old until they are nine years of age: after which, any deficiency in their education is supplied, or new and more advanced branches acquired, by attending the evening school after mill

hours; many thus learning the languages, grammar, book-keeping, drawing, geography, algebra, and various branches of mathematics. A Sabbath school is also taught by me, assisted by monitors, at which from 300 to 400 of the youth regularly attend; and there is also attached to the Sunday school, for the benefit of the scholars, a library of several hundred volumes, chiefly religious and moral. The expenses connected with this institution are wholly defrayed by the proprietors of the cotton-works. I may mention also, that there is a small library in the village, to which all have access by paying a trifling annual subscription. The proprietors of the cotton-works have also, at great expense, erected and endowed a place of public worship in connexion with the Church of Scotland, chiefly for the accommodation of their workers, in which divine service is regularly observed, and all the youth who choose to attend are accommodated with seats gratuitously. There are also in Stanley a number of associations, such as the Benevolent Society, the Gardeners' Society, the Funeral Society, &c. whose object is to provide for the sick, the aged and destitute, and by means of which much suffering and misery have been relieved and prevented."—*Supplementary Report of Factory Commissioners*, part 1. A. 1, p. 77.

Extracts from the New Statistical Account of Scotland.

The following is taken as an average specimen of the parishes described in the first six numbers of the work; such parts only of the report are given as relate to our immediate object:—

Ledgerwood, Berwickshire.—Population 565.

"Of the very limited population, it may be noticed that there are twenty-two individuals betwixt sixty and seventy, most of whom are still active, and five above seventy; one of the latter is considerably above eighty, and another has attained the great age of ninety-four. The people are no doubt indebted in a great degree for the blessings of robust health, to comfortable accommodation, temperate habits of life, and regular and bracing employment."

"*Husbandry.*—A five years' rotation of crop is observed on all the farms; and, as potatoes are not grown for the market, one-fifth of the cultivated land may be said to be annually in turnips, two-fifths in oats and barley, and two-fifths in grass, of which scarcely one-sixth is cut for hay. The system of husbandry thus arranged is pursued with much zeal and enlightened generosity to the land, and appears to be most judicious, and, in the circumstances, highly successful. The tenants are all men of acknowledged skill and experience in the science of farming; they are not embarrassed by inadequacy of capital, and almost every year some melioration, chiefly in the way of draining, is effected."

"*Education.*—There is only the parochial school in the parish. The branches of instruction generally taught in it are, English reading and grammar, writing, arithmetic, and occasionally book-keeping and practical mathematics. The salary is 28*l.* per annum, with the legal accommodation as to house and garden; and the school fees amount to 20*l.* per annum. The general expense of education per month is, for Eng-

lish, 10*d.*; for writing, 1*s.*; for arithmetic, 1*s.* 2*d.*; and for book-keeping, &c. 6*s.* per quarter. There are a number of children between six and fifteen years of age who cannot write; for the population being scattered, five or six years (according as it is in winter or summer) is the age at which children are first sent to school, and at eight or nine years they begin to write. There are, perhaps, some females above fifteen who cannot write; but no individuals above that age are understood to be unable to read. The people seem in general to be alive to the important benefits of education, and it is an object which the Kirk Session has for a considerable time anxiously watched over and promoted."

"*Character, &c. of the People.*—They are commonly sober-minded, industrious, and temperate. Their houses are in general good and comfortable, well-furnished, and kept with great attention to cleanliness. They seldom eat butchers' meat; but they keep a cow, have a pig which they fatten for their families, and get, as part of wages, more meal and potatoes than in some instances they consume. They appear to enjoy in a reasonable degree the comforts and advantages of society, and to be quite contented with their situation and circumstances."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, p. 348—358.

There are very few instances of a parish in which the education of the inhabitants is described as otherwise than as in a good state, or in which their moral character and state of comforts are not also spoken of highly. Among the least favourable specimens the following is the worst we can find:—

Traquair, Peeblesshire.—Population 630.

"*Education.*—There is only one school in this parish; namely, the parochial. For the last sixty years at least, no other branches of education could be learned in it besides reading, writing, and accounts. Whether the taste for anything superior to these, now that they have the opportunity of acquiring it, may arise, time will show. There are perhaps not two individuals in the parish above the years of infancy who cannot at least read: were this otherwise, the people would be utterly inexcusable, seeing that the school fees are so small; being for reading, 2*s.*, for reading and writing 2*s.* 6*d.*, and for both, with accounts, 3*s.* per quarter; and seeing also that these fees are always paid out of the poor's fund for those who declare themselves unable to pay. We need scarcely add, after what has been said of the liberality of our heritors, that the salary is the maximum, and the parochial teacher has fully double the legal accommodations. The school fees may amount perhaps on an average to 25*l.* per annum. Owing to the great length of the parish in proportion to its breadth, many of the children can scarcely be expected to attend regularly, except perhaps for a short time in summer. Those in its western division find accommodation in the schools of Peebles; while a few families on its eastern borders are more destitute.

"A few years ago a small school library was founded in the parish: at first it seemed to be very popular, but now it is very much neglected. The same thing may be said of a Sabbath evening school, or lecture, established principally for young people after having left school and gone to service, as also for the aged

and infirm, and mothers of infant children, who could not attend church in the forenoon; but which, owing to the gradual decay of attendance, has in the mean time been discontinued. Popular lectures on some of the more simple parts of science were delivered gratis in the school-room two winters ago, and called forth a very crowded audience. They may perhaps be resumed occasionally hereafter."

"*Character and Habits of the People.*—On this point we have no peculiarity to notice, except, perhaps, that our people have scarcely yet learned to accommodate themselves to the great change of the times since the close of the late war. There are not wanting families among us, however, whose tables are covered with a plentiful though homely fare, and whose children are never so ill clad as to make their parents ashamed of bringing them up to the house of God. It must be admitted that all this requires an industry and an economy on the part of both parents which must never be relaxed, and perhaps, too, a little saving before marriage to set the parties up without debt; which is but far too seldom the case in these days of luxury and of vanity."

"Wages are not now so high in proportion to the mode of living as they were during that war; employment is not so steady; and neither proprietors nor farmers, in general, so able to afford either as formerly. At the same time, the old thrifty habits of domestic industry and economy in families have been forgotten; by many, everything is now bought with money. The expensive articles of tea, coffee, and sugar they can neither easily want nor easily procure. They become, therefore, liable to feelings of discon-

tent, which have, it may be feared, injured the cause of true and vital godliness, and of brotherly kindness and charity in the hearts of many: for while justice demands the admission that our people are generally intelligent, generous, and respectable in their station, it is doubtful if we can add that they are equally religious. Poaching in salmon in close-time is much practised, having been long winked at by the landholders from the very small numbers of fish that find their way up the river at any other season."

"*Miscellaneous Observations.*—Since the last statistical account was drawn up, the whole system of agriculture in the parish has been changed, improved, and extended. The old Scottish plough is now entirely laid aside, and four horses are probably never seen yoked together in the field. Instead of 'a small quantity of turnips being raised,' they form a regular rotation in every farm. Instead of '500 bolls of barley being exported,' there is now at least double that quantity. Instead of the wheat being 'nothing equal to the consumption,' that consumption is not only immensely enlarged, but a considerable overplus for sale is left."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, No. 3.

The number of instances in which great improvement is stated to have taken place in the condition of the people and their moral habits, and in which education is represented as extending to the whole population, is so great that it is difficult to select from them. We, however, give the following:—

Kinnettles, Forfarshire.—Population 547.

"All young persons in the parish betwixt six and fifteen years of age can read, and nearly all write

also; and the number of persons in the parish, upwards of fifteen years of age, who can neither read nor write, is only one. The people, in general, are alive to the benefits of education; and parents in particular make great exertions to have their children well educated."

"*Customs, Character of the People.*—The dress of the people, if not the same as that of the English, must be allowed to be a very close imitation of it; and no class is so poor as not to have an abundance of plain, wholesome food. The people generally live in commodious houses, follow agreeable occupations, enjoy a competency of the means of subsistence, live on friendly terms, and maintain a reciprocal exchange of good offices. They bear generally a fair moral character; nor are they inattentive to the duties of religion."

"The general aspect of the parish, as well artificial as natural, has unquestionably been much improved within the last forty years. Many parts of it which were then wet have been drained; many wastes reclaimed; and at least 300 acres brought from a state of nature into a state of cultivation, while about 20 acres have been added to the plantations."

"Farming, in all its branches, is conducted upon the most approved principles, by a body of men who are generally enlightened practical farmers. By adopting the system of alternate husbandry in corn crop, green crop, and grass, and by applying lime and marl, with a proportionate quantity of dung, the farmers have generally put the arable land in excellent condition. Hence there is not only a greater extent put under corn crop, green crop, and artificial

grasses, but the same extent yields a produce very much superior, both in quantity and quality, to the produce of former times. Indeed, it may with safety be said, that the produce of grain and green crop is about double of what it was in 1792. Since that period the progress of agriculture has been rapid. This rapidity has in no small degree been promoted by the introduction of some valuable machines, and by the adoption of new modes of growing and consuming turnips. Besides, the arrangement of the former enclosures has been greatly altered; many new fences have been erected, and the whole system of enclosing, so far as it goes, has been very much improved.

"Within these twenty years, the cottages and village houses, many of which have a but and a ben, have in general been made comfortable to their inhabitants, and let at rents ranging from 1*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* per house and garden. Within the same period the farm-houses, with the offices thereto attached, have been generally put in excellent order, and are found to afford ample and commodious accommodation.

"Forty years ago, personal services were exacted and performed in the parish. Occupiers of a house and garden, or of a house and garden with one or two acres of land, performed some days' work occasionally, as the proprietor might happen to require them, in the course of the year. Such tenants as possessed ground sufficient to enable them to keep a horse, besides the above services were bound to perform two horse-back carriages in the course of the year, as far as Dundee, which is distant about twelve miles, or to a similar distance. Greater tenants were bound to convey a certain number of bolls of coals from Dundee to

the proprietors' houses, which required two or three days' work of their men, horses, and carts. They were likewise bound to give a day's work of all their reapers, commonly called a bondage, for cutting down the proprietor's corn. Besides, they were bound to give annually so many spindles of yarn, so many poultry, called kain, and were restricted to particular meal-mills, where they were obliged to pay heavy multures, and to perform mill services.

"From these rigorous remains of feudal slavery the inhabitants of the parish are now happily set at liberty."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, No. 5, p. 230.

Jedburgh, Roxburghshire.—Population 5647.

"*Education.*—The total number of schools in the parish is 14, of which three are parochial, and one is endowed by the Marquis of Lothian. The total number of scholars is 950, being about one-fifth of the population; but of these 87 attend night schools, and 63 female schools. The grammar school of Jedburgh had attained considerable eminence even so early as the commencement of the seventeenth century. The heritors, and especially the magistrates, as appears from the records of the borough, have always been attentive to its interests, and scrupulous in the choice of its rectors; and their care has been amply rewarded by the character which it has long possessed and still maintains."

"The inhabitants of this parish are in general intelligent, sober, orderly, and industrious. The bad effects of the reduction of the duty upon ardent spirits have indeed been felt to no small extent, but happily not to such a degree as to affect the general character of the

people. It is, indeed, one of the most striking evidences of the progress of civilization, and one of the most pleasing effects of a regular government, that, in a country formerly the scene of depredating violence, fewer instances of crimes, or of punishments, have occurred during the last fifty years, than perhaps in any other district of equal extent in the kingdom."

"*Husbandry.*—During the last twenty years, an immense quantity of waste land has been reclaimed; and in a short period, all that is capable of improvement will be reduced to a state of cultivation."

"*Miscellaneous Observations.*—Since the period when the last statistical account was written, the state of the parish has been much improved: various kinds of manufactures have been introduced which were then unknown in this district,—farms which were entirely pastoral now bear luxuriant crops,—the fields have been neatly inclosed with hedges,—waste ground has been planted,—the style of dwelling-houses, both in the town and in the country, is now vastly superior,—the means of communication have been greatly enlarged,—the population has been nearly doubled,—and all classes seem to enjoy a large share of the comforts of civilized society."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, No. 5.

Melrose, Roxburghshire.—Population 3500.

"*Education.*— * * * The whole system is working exceedingly well, and no additional schools are required. If any were, such is the importance the people attach to the education of their children, that they would not be long wanting. We may venture to say, that there are none in the parish above six who

cannot read, and none above fifteen who cannot write, and that the people universally are alive to the benefits of education."

* * * * *

"Since the facilities of education were increased, a most decided change in the morals of the people in this part of the country has become visible. The number of delinquencies requiring church censure which occur has, as the old compared with the recent records of the Court of Sessions show, diminished from seven and ten a week to three in the year. This is a strong and well-ascertained fact; and it may be added, that the people universally have become more steady in their habits, more mild in their manners and dispositions, and more exemplary in their general character, moral and religious. Education in this part of the country has enabled the people to find in reading a cheap and innocent amusement at their own firesides, increasing the comforts of home."

"*Character, Habits, &c. of the People.*—The people, without being distinguished from their countrymen by any personal peculiarities, may be described as being generally a stout, muscular, well-formed race, hardy and patient of fatigue, having among them many instances of great stature and strength. In so numerous a population, there are only two persons insane, three fatuous, two blind, and one deaf and dumb. The dialect spoken is distinguishable, although it does not differ much, from that of the west coast used by Burns. The finest specimens of it in spirit, characteristic features, and idiom, are to be found in the dialogue of those of the Waverley Novels where the scene is laid at or near the Scottish border. There

are instances in which that author admits an old word, not at present in general use; and the reading habits of the people have insensibly led them to incorporate with their conversational style much of the classical language of the country.

"The dress of the common people, from which every peculiarity has long ago disappeared, is always becoming and in good repair; and on particular occasions, when they appear in their 'Sunday's best,' it differs little from that of the upper classes. For some years past, they seem to have been rather in straitened circumstances, owing to the low rate of wages and the scarcity of work; but by industry, temperate habits, and frugal management, they make a shift to maintain themselves and their families comfortably; and there are few of them who have not saved a sum of money, upon which they can draw in any emergency. It may be truly said, that they are an intellectual, moral, and religious people; and that, through the excellent education which they universally receive and their natural capabilities, they are becoming more so every day.

"Smuggling and pawnbroking are unknown. The game laws, to the credit of the proprietors be it spoken, are very leniently enforced. The parties seem to be upon honour with each other,—the one not poaching beyond a certain extent, the other not pushing the enforcement of the law so far as persecution."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, No. 5.

Stobo, Peebles-shire.—Population 440.

"*Education.*—The parochial school is the only school in the parish. Besides the usual branches,

Latin is sometimes taught there. There is no person in the parish upwards of fifteen years of age who cannot both read and write."

"*Character of the People.*—My residence amongst them has been for upwards of sixty years. I have known in the parish many respectable, benevolent, and kind-hearted parishioners. They are gone, and I have mourned their loss. Yet they have left behind them successors to whose integrity of life and manners I am happy to have the opportunity to bear testimony. There is, in one word, perhaps, no parish where the moral character and conduct of the people are in all respects more uniformly unexceptionable."

New Statistical Account of Scotland, No. 3.

Johnstone, Dumfries-shire.—Population 1230.

"*Education.*—There are three public schools in the parish. * * * There are no persons in the parish above six years of age who cannot both read and write. Since the facilities of education have been increased, an evident improvement has taken place in the morals and general good conduct of the parishioners, as is testified by our sessional records of discipline, &c."

"*Literature.*—A parochial library, consisting chiefly of books of divinity, biography, history, &c. (and from which all novels are positively excluded,) was established by a general subscription in the year 1828. The funds were increased by a very handsome donation from the principal heritor; by means of which, with the quarterly subscription of the members, (chiefly heads of families,) it amounts to above 300 volumes."

"*Character and Habits of the People.*—The people are cleanly in their habits, and seem never to forget that a black and white home-made plaid (be it in the month of June or January, and the weather what it may,) is essential to complete their dress when they go abroad to church or market. Oatmeal made into porridge or cakes, and potatoes used with milk, and occasionally a little mutton, or beef, or bacon, is the ordinary food of the peasantry, who are industrious in their callings, and in their circumstances contented and happy. Though not so much engrossed in literary or intellectual pursuits, our inhabitants are yet an intelligent, moral, and church-going population."

"The prevailing popular games are curling in the winter and quoits in summer; for superior skill in both of which manly and exhilarating exercises this parish has for some years past been confessedly distinguished."

"*Miscellaneous Observations.*—There are, we believe, few, if any, instances of a parish unconnected with manufactures, and whose inhabitants depend exclusively for support upon the cultivation of the soil, increasing so rapidly in population as this has done within these last forty years. During this period the external aspect of the parish has been entirely changed, by its roads, its enclosures, and its improved system of husbandry; but more especially by the number of comfortable dwellings erected for the accommodation of the labouring classes. These houses have been built partly at their own expense, with the assistance of timber, &c. from the proprietor, and are generally slated or flagged.

"Labourers of industrious habits having possessed

themselves of these tenements, with an adjacent piece of ground for keeping a cow, and growing potatoes for their families, at a moderate rent, are enabled to live in a degree of comfort and independence very superior, indeed, to what is enjoyed by the same rank who reside in villages, or who rent houses from year to year under the tenantry.

"While the population has increased so extensively, it is an extraordinary fact in our parish statistics, that its pauperism has been diminished. For, forty years ago, with a population of 563, the regular paupers upon the roll were 18; whereas, in the year 1831, when the population has risen to 1234, the number upon our list at the half-yearly distribution in November last amounted to only 16.

"The prevailing disease among us (if, indeed, any can be so called) is pleurisy, which sometimes shows itself, but generally in a mild form, in the months of September and October. But of those 'putrid fevers' caught in olden times, partly by infection from our voracious 'neighbours of the mountains, who fed upon carrion, and who, from habit, are said to have preferred it to sound and wholesome mutton,' we now happily know nothing.

"Finally, in this very populous rural parish, we have neither public-houses, nor meeting-house, nor resident surgeon, nor village, nor post-office, nor prison, nor lawyer, nor beggar; specialties, we humbly conceive, not to be found united in any one parish of similar dimensions in Britain; and of which, though some may be occasionally felt as parish privations, others are daily prized by us as distinguished blessings."—*New Statistical Account of Scotland*, No. 2.

PRESENT STATE OF EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

PARTLY on account of the difficulty of obtaining trustworthy information respecting Ireland, we have left this section open till the last; and official duties now requiring our undivided attention, we are compelled to close the section abruptly, to the neglect of much matter which we had intended to collect and digest.

There are, however, broad facts respecting Ireland which require no minute examination or nice balancing, and which, after allowing ample latitude for error, firmly establish the co-existence of ignorance and misery in that unhappy land.

First, as respects ignorance.—We will take as indicative of the amount of reading in the country, the same test which we applied to Scotland; namely, the quantity of paper manufactured. We are of course aware that this is not a perfect test, but, as a means of approximating to the truth, we think it may in the present instance be safely depended upon. In England and Wales, the average annual quantity of writing and printing paper manufactured in the three years ending with 1833 was 40,600,000 lbs., or rather more than $2\frac{3}{4}$lbs. per head of population: and we have seen that as high an average, in proportion to the population, existed in Scotland. In Ireland, however, the

average quantity of paper per head of population in the year specified, instead of being 2¾lbs. as in England or in Scotland, was only about *one-sixth of a pound!* the total average quantity being only 1,300,000 lbs., whilst the population of the country was between 7,000,000 and 8,000,000.*

It thus appears, that in proportion to population there is more than ten times as much paper made in England as there is in Ireland; and we think it probable that the amount of reading in this country is greater than in Ireland in much the same proportion.

A writer in whom we place great confidence, — Mr. Inglis, — frequently speaks of finding tokens of the want of education in Ireland, and laments over the ignorance of the people as one main cause of the evils under which the country labours. As regards the question under immediate consideration,—the extent to which the people can acquire knowledge by reading,—it is deserving of remark, that Mr. Inglis mentions as a circumstance favourably distinguishing the town of Clonmel, containing 18,000 inhabitants, that it contains two booksellers' shops and two circulating libraries! He says:—

"The population of Clonmel wears a respectable look; one sees few ragged and barefooted people, and few idlers. There is an appearance of something doing; a bustle and throng, evidently arising from people having an object in view. The shops, too, are

* It is possible that in addition to the quantity of paper manufactured in Ireland, some may be sent from England or elsewhere; but we are not aware that such is the case, nor do we know any reason why it should be so.

good, well filled, and well frequented. Nor must I omit another unequivocal sign of improvement. I found two very respectably-stocked booksellers' shops, and two respectable circulating libraries. These were the first libraries I had seen since leaving Kilkenny; neither at Thurles, Cashel—the archiepiscopal city of Cashel — nor at Tipperary, is there any circulating library or book-society. This is certainly a singular and unpleasant fact. Towns in England, containing as these do from seven to ten thousand inhabitants, would certainly afford at least one public library, and more than one reading society. A library was attempted at Tipperary, but it was not supported; and either was lately, or now is, on sale."

Ireland in 1834. Vol. i. p. 133.

In the following passages, among others, Mr. Inglis touches on the subject of education generally:—

"I will not omit this opportunity of observing, that the repeal of the duty on glass would very materially tend to better the habitations of the Irish peasantry. The cabin with a bit of a glass window has quite a superior air in comparison with its unenlightened neighbours. It must be admitted, however, in throwing out any suggestion for improvement of this kind, that the character of the Irish peasant presents some obstacles; and that the progress of improvement in food, habitation, and clothing will not be a rapid one: education only can check the tendencies which naturally stand in the way of improvement."

Ireland in 1834. Vol. i. p. 155.

"Education, employment for the people, and a vigorous administration of the law, will dissolve the

elements of these, as well as of all disturbances; and although at this moment a strong police is absolutely requisite to maintain in Ireland anything like order and decorum, I have as little doubt that healing measures, coupled with an extensive and practicable system of education, will gradually diminish the necessity for coercion of any kind."—Vol. i. p. 157.

On the poverty, the crimes, and the misery of the Irish people, it is unnecessary to dwell at any length. However we may differ as to the means of effecting a cure, no one doubts the existence of a mighty evil. A few facts, however, may not be considered superfluous.

Poverty and Misery. — Since, in proportion to their means, the Irish people are probably taxed about the same as the English, we may take the amount of revenue raised in the two countries as a criterion of their comparative wealth. The revenue of taxes in Great Britain last year (1834) was nearly 48,000,000*l.*, the population being about 17,500,000; giving, therefore, an average of about 2*l.* 15*s.* per head of population. The revenue of taxes for Ireland, however, was less than 4,500,000*l.*, yielding an average of about 11*s.* per head, the population being nearly 8,000,000.

We have met with but few things which more strongly mark the poverty of Ireland than Mr. Inglis's description of the market at Westport, a town of some importance in the county of Mayo. It was Mr. Inglis's happy talent as a traveller to seize on that which was important, not so much on its own account, but as a general index.

"The day after my arrival in Westport chanced to

be market-day. The town had an appearance of considerable business; but, with the exception of manufactured linen, this appearance was deceptive. It is true, there were many people in the market, and much buying and selling; but the articles brought to market were, in most cases, of very trifling value. I saw hundreds of women standing with but a couple of hanks of linen yarn, worth a shilling or two; hundreds with an apronful of wool, worth much less. Some of these bundles of wool, indeed, were the shearings of one or two sheep, the exclusive property of the farmer's wife or daughter, and were sent to be converted into ribbons or gloves; but, notwithstanding these exceptions, it is certain that there is much evidence of the poverty of the surrounding country, in the small value of the articles brought to market, and in the great distance which they are carried. I know of three, two, and even *one* egg, being brought to Westport from a distance of two miles. I saw a girl take her seat in the market with five eggs, worth one penny halfpenny; and she had walked an Irish mile and a half to bring them to market."

Ireland in 1834. Vol. ii. p. 99.

A striking and melancholy circumstance mentioned by Mr. Inglis, is the change which he was obliged to make from time to time in the standard of wealth and comfort as he went farther and farther into Ireland, and became less and less accustomed to view matters as he had been used to do in England. At first, he was shocked at seeing a pig in the same dwelling with the cottager and his family. He soon, however, became aware that there was a yet poorer class; namely, those

who were unable to keep a pig at all. Again, he was distressed at seeing a heap of manure before the door of a cottage, infecting the air all round. Even on this nuisance, however, he was at length obliged to look as an indication of *comparative* wealth in the owner.

"Independently of the pauperism occasioned by the unprosperous condition of the manufactures of Kilkenny, the whole working population I found in a miserable condition; hundreds subsisting on the chance contributions which were levied on the farmers round the country, and hundreds more subsisting at the very lowest point at which life can be sustained. The suburbs I found more wretched than any I had yet seen in any town; pigs were by no means a universal possession, and the chief wealth of the poor seemed to be dungheaps before the door. I do not speak in jest — the dungheap insures a certain quantum of subsistence in this way. The con-acre system prevails here; and it is usual for the possessor of the land to let it out in small patches, rent free, for one season, on condition of the patch being manured by the person who takes it. Thus, a poor man may insure to his family the produce for a season of as much land as he is able to put a sufficiency of manure into; so that I had now advanced a step farther, and was not only gratified by seeing a pig in a cabin, but also by the spectacle of a large dungheap close to the door."

Ireland in 1834. Vol. i. p. 94.

The following extracts from Mr. Inglis's Travels—a work in which exaggeration of every kind appears to be carefully avoided, and which is free from the taint of partisanship—afford additional and mournful pic-

tures of the poverty and misery of the great body of the Irish people.

"Before leaving Waterford, I visited some of the worst quarters of the town, and was introduced to scenes of most appalling misery. I found three and four families in hovels, lying on straw in different corners, and not a bit of furniture visible; the hovels themselves situated in the midst of the most horrid and disgusting filth; the heads of the families were out begging potatoes round the country. I noticed among the inferior classes in Waterford—I do not mean the mendicant or destitute poor—too many evidences of idle, slovenly habits; ragged clothes, which might have been mended; uncombed hair, which might have been in order: and even in the farm-houses I observed, amongst a class who in England would have been neat and tidy, dirty caps and faces, ragged children, and an untidy and slatternly look about things, not warranted by the circumstances of the inmates."—*Ireland in* 1834. Vol. i. p. 67.

Speaking of Carrick-on-Suir, Mr. Inglis says:—

"I was struck with its deserted, fallen-off appearance,—with the number of houses and shops shut up, and windows broken,—and with the very poor, ragged population that lingered about the streets; nor were these appearances dissipated by farther opportunity of observation: I had not yet visited any town in a poorer condition than this. Carrick-on-Suir, once a town of great prosperity, and large stuff-manufacture, and situated in one of the most abundant of districts, appears to be now distinguished only by the extreme poverty of its population. I found the price of labour

here lower than I had yet anywhere found it: six-pence to eight-pence, without diet, (and even for temporary employment,) was all that could be obtained; and, at this price, many hundreds of unemployed labourers could have been got by holding up one's finger."—*Ireland in* 1834. Vol. i. p. 72.

Yet more distressing even is the account of the poorer part of the city of Limerick:—

"I spent a day in visiting those parts of the city where the greatest destitution and misery were said to exist. I entered upwards of forty of the abodes of poverty; and, to the latest hour of my existence, I can never forget the scenes of utter and hopeless wretchedness that presented themselves that day. I shall endeavour to convey to the reader some general idea of what I saw:—

"Some of the abodes I visited were garrets, some were cellars; some were hovels on the ground-floor, situated in narrow yards, or alleys. I will not speak of the filth of the places; that could not be exceeded in places meant to be its receptacles. Let the worst be imagined, and it will not be beyond the truth. In at least three-fourths of the hovels which I entered, there was no furniture of any description save an iron pot, — no table, no chair, no bedstead; two, three, or four little bundles of straw, with perhaps one or two scanty and ragged mats, were rolled up in the corners, unless where these beds were found occupied. The inmates were some of them old, crooked, and diseased; some younger, but emaciated, and surrounded by starving children: some were sitting on the damp ground, some standing, and many were unable to rise from

their little straw heaps. In scarcely one hovel could I find even a potatoe. In one which I entered, I noticed a small opening leading into an inner room: I lighted a bit of paper, at the embers of a turf which lay in the chimney, and looked in. It was a cellar wholly dark, and about twelve feet square: two bundles of straw lay in two corners; on one sat a bed-ridden woman; on another lay two naked children—literally naked, with a torn rag of some kind thrown over them both. But I saw worse even than this. In a cellar which I entered, and which was almost quite dark, and slippery with damp, I found a man sitting on a little sawdust. He was naked: he had not even a shirt; a filthy and ragged mat was round him: this man was a living skeleton, the bones all but protruded through the skin — he was literally starving.

"In place of forty hovels, I might have visited hundreds. In place of seeing, as I did, hundreds of men, women, and children in the last state of destitution, I might have seen thousands. I entered the alleys, and visited the hovels, and climbed the stairs at a venture; I did not select; and I have no reason to believe that the forty which I visited were the abodes of greater wretchedness than the hundreds which I passed by."—*Ireland in* 1834. Vol. i. p. 302.

The following replies by Mr. Inglis to some of the queries drawn up by the Poor Law Commissioners for Ireland are part of the result of his continued observations through the country, of which the foregoing are detached portions.

In answer to two queries respecting the number of

labourers in constant employment and the number in occasional employment, and also as to the way in which the labourers out of employment are maintained, Mr. Inglis says,—

"I will take upon me to answer, that the great mass of the labouring class in Ireland have no constant employment. I should say, that throughout the greater part of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, a large majority of the labouring poor are unable to find constant employment. With the exception of Belfast, and some few places where public works had created a temporary demand, I found nowhere full employment for the people. As for their means of subsistence when out of employment, little suffices: if they have not themselves a patch of potatoe-land, they or their wives beg among the farmers round the country; relations, who have a little to spare, help them; and the priest also does something for them."

"What is the ordinary diet, and condition with respect to clothing, of the labouring classes?—The diet of those who are in employment consists of a scanty meal or two of potatoes, with the addition, at times, of a little buttermilk. The diet of the far greater number, who are not in employment, consists of as many dry potatoes as serve just to sustain life. In Ulster, things are rather better; there are fewer of the latter class, and the farmers have more plentiful meals. As for clothing, an English beggar would not lift off the ground the clothes worn by old and young of the lower classes of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught. The young can scarcely be said to be clothed at all."

"What are the daily wages of labourers, with or without diet? — Excluding the large towns, such as Belfast, Cork and Limerick, and the labourers employed on the domains of a very few resident noblemen, ten-pence without diet are the highest wages ever given for constant employment; nine-pence and eight-pence is the more usual rate; and in some places, sixpence is willingly accepted for constant employment. With diet, sixpence is the usual sum given. The wages of occasional employment vary with the occasion: at seasons of particular demand, one shilling, or more even, may be given; but at all other times, any number of labourers may be hired, by the week, at eight-pence, and even lower."

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"Of what description of buildings are those cabins, and how furnished?—The only difference between the best and the worst of the mud cabins is, that some are water-tight and some are not: air-tight I saw none; with windows, scarcely any; with chimneys, — that is, with a hole in the roof for the smoke to escape through,—as many, perhaps, with it as without it. As for furniture, there is no such thing; unless a broken stool or two and an iron pot can be called furniture. I should say, that in the greater part of Leinster and Munster, and in the flat districts of Connaught, bedsteads are far from general; and bedclothing is never sufficient. In the greater part of Ulster, cabins and their furniture are considerably superior."—*Ireland in* 1834. Vol. ii. pp. 297. 304.

Crime, Tumult, &c.—In Ireland, unhappily, the records of convictions before courts of justice indicate

but a small portion of the crimes actually committed, crowded as these records may be; for so strong are the temptations to crime and violence, so little is public sympathy enlisted on the side of the law (at least in many of its provisions), and so inefficient is the administration of justice, that the greater number of offences pass by without entailing punishment on the perpetrators.

The following is an enumeration of the average annual number of convictions on criminal charges of the most serious kind, during the three years ending with 1833, together with the corresponding numbers for England and Wales; the population of the latter countries being nearly double that of Ireland, and the police being far more efficient in the detection and apprehension of offenders.

	Ireland.	England and Wales.
Murder	33	14
Assault with intent to murder, and shooting at persons	23	42
Manslaughter	156	86
Burglary	54	95
Uttering counterfeit coin	82	304
Riotous assembling	840	43
Executed	38	46

One great source of violence and crime in Ireland is the division into hostile clans; a remnant of feudal times which, happily, has long ago disappeared in our own country. Speaking on this subject, Mr. Inglis says:—

"These factions, which are not understood in England, create far more disturbance and far more blood-

shed than any of the associations entered into for illegal purposes. I was in this county (Kerry) at the time of the memorable affair of Balybunian, when nearly two score persons were driven into the Shannon and drowned, and knocked on the head like so many dogs: and will anybody say, that premeditated fights of this kind, solemnly resolved upon months before, do not require as vigorous an intervention of the law as any disturbance arising out of a tithe distraining! Where magistrates are afraid to act, and witnesses dare not swear; and where, in one reputed quiet county, more riots, attended with loss of life, take place in one month than in all England and Scotland for a year, it is surely idle to talk of the expense of a police."

Ireland in 1834. Vol. i. p. 256.

After attending the Assizes at Ennis, and when speaking generally of the proceedings in the provincial courts of justice in Ireland, Mr. Inglis says,—

"The most numerous class of cases at most Irish assizes is that which is facetiously denominated *fair* murders,—that is, homicides committed at fairs; and I do not know any means by which so much insight is to be obtained into the character of the Irish peasantry, and into the condition of the country, and state of things among the lower classes of society, as by listening to these prosecutions for *fair* murders. There were many of these prosecutions at the Ennis Assizes; and although I had already heard much of the factions into which the peasantry are divided, I had no conception of the extent of this evil, or of the bitterness with which spirit of faction is attended.

* * * * * * *

"But the most striking defect of character which is brought to light, is a perfect contempt of human suffering, and an utter disregard even of the value of human life. Weapons of the most deadly description are brought into court as evidence;—sticks and whips loaded with lead; and stones, that might crush the head of a horse. A ruffian may occasionally be found in England who would slay a man alive to become possessed of his purse; but I greatly question whether, out of Ireland, fifty men could be found in any one parish, in any country in Europe, ready to beat one another's brains out with sticks and stones, and all but glorying in the deed. And, as I have already observed, the same ferocity which has been exhibited at the fight is brought into court: false oaths are the substitutes for weapons; and by these, witnesses seek to avenge the death of a relative who has been more unfortunate, but probably not more criminal, than the accused."—Vol. i. pp. 281. 292.

We might extend this notice of poverty, misery, and crime in Ireland, by speaking of the passion for ardent spirits, and the habits of drunkenness, which are partly the cause and partly the consequence of the ignorance, crime, and misery which prevail. We might also speak of the superstitions of the people — the direct result and the certain indication of ignorance, — and we might dilate on the suffering and mischief which must arise therefrom. The task, however, is unnecessary; and it would be a thankless one. The Catholic population of Ireland, in evincing as they have done their readiness—nay, their anxiety—to receive education, have shown that they do not cling to

their errors from an obstinate and stupid persistence in folly and wrong-doing, but because they have not had opportunities of acquiring knowledge and habits of self-control. They are willing, and their leaders are willing, to put their doctrines and opinions to the test of wide-spread knowledge; and this is all that those who sincerely desire to promote truth and justice can demand. If the gates of the mind be thrown open, sound knowledge has but to present itself to find a hearty welcome.

We are far from attributing the ills of Ireland solely to the want of education among the people, and the want of means in after life of acquiring knowledge. The ignorance of the English people has had almost as great a share in producing these ills as the ignorance of the Irish: for from English ignorance has sprung much of the misgovernment which for centuries has aided in producing disaffection, heartburnings, insecurity of life and property, and a consequent withering effect on industry.

From the time of Elizabeth, when an order in council was passed, setting forth that Ireland was advancing too rapidly for the safety of England in wealth and prosperity, and commissioning military leaders to go through the country burning and sacking the towns with the avowed purpose of reducing Ireland to a lower scale of comfort and happiness—from those ignorant and barbarous times, till within the last few years, the English people generally have regarded the Irish either with callous indifference or with distrust and jealousy. Latterly, however, kinder feelings have been excited, and more enlightened views have

presented themselves: the people of the two countries have at length become aware that they have one common interest; and that, instead of the security and prosperity of one nation being promoted by the weakness and degradation of the other, every injury inflicted on either, and every act of injustice to which it is subjected, recoils on its neighbour; while, on the other hand, that which confers a benefit on the one necessarily promotes the good of the other.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

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